The Nation.

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The Week.

Senator Frye's account in the *Tribune* of the "negotiation" of the Peace Commissioners in Paris shows that he evidently has not much idea how it will look to civilized men. "Negotiations" of this sort have been familiar to all highwaymen and burglars since the practice of robbery began. The burglar gets somehow into the citizen's bedchamber and wakes him up and asks for his money. The citizen says he has no money. Then "negotiation" continues. The citizen admits, on being pressed, that he has some, but very little, money. He is requested to indicate where it is. He declines to tell. The robber is firm with him. He points out to him that he must see that his visit has not been made for mere pleasure, that its object is the acquisition of wealth, and he requests him to think more deliberately over his refusal to say where the money is. The citizen considers the matter, and states the reasons for his unwillingness, in good logical form. The robber is still not convinced, and asks the citizen whether he is aware that further persistence in his refusal will be followed by the presentation of an "ultimatum." The citizen asks whether no modification of his demands is possible. The robber says not, but adds that his patience is becoming rapidly exhausted, and produces a revolver which he informs the citizen is in his business called an "ultimatum," and will be used on the citizen's person in case of further delay. The citizen then tells where the money is, and a treaty of peace is signed. The "negotiations" in highway robbery or the "holding up" of a train follow substantially the same course. They are always closed by the presentation of an irresistible "ultimatum." It is probably owing to this resemblance to the criminal offence of extortion under threats that it is not the custom of civilized nations to present ultimatums personally, especially when it is well known that the wretched enemy cannot resist. Ultimatums are usually written in dispatches. Civilized people usually try to avoid the spectacle of a vanquished enemy's squirming or weeping over his own or his country's humiliation. Modern negotiations are supposed to have something "mutual" in them, some possibility of give-and-take. If there is no give-and-take in them, and they are sure to be followed by an "ultimatum," they are called, not "negotiations," but extortion. But it is pleasant to remember that we can "lick" any one who finds fault with our manners.

That there would be no organized Democratic opposition to the ratification of the treaty of peace with Spain, was certain after Mr. Bryan advised against it, a few days ago. He advised against it, of course, only after he had found out at Washington that no effective opposition could be made. The same truth was also made evident in the higher tone taken by the President in his speeches in the South. His last lingering doubts about our duty to hold all we had seized had disappeared—which clearly meant, to those versed in the workings of the Executive mind, that his last doubts about the Senate's ratifying the treaty had disappeared. Now comes Mr. Clark Howell, Democratic National Committeeman from Georgia, to declare, after conferring with political leaders of both parties at Washington, that the treaty is as good as ratified already; that the Democrats who thought it their duty to vote against it had changed their minds, and that there will practically be no opposition at all. There will be, however, asserts Mr. Howell, a determined effort to pass a resolution concurrent with the treaty and similar to the Cuban resolution, on the basis of which we went to war—a resolution, that is, reciting our purpose to give the Filipinos a free and independent government. Around this resolution it is expected that the anti-expansion sentiment will rally which otherwise would have gone against the treaty itself.

This programme does not, it seems to us, promise to be fruitful. In the first place, it is, in so far, playing into the hands of the expansionists. It is a part of the address with which Mr. McKinley and his managers have conducted their case, that they have represented the treaty as really settling nothing about the Philippines. It only "eliminates" Spain, they have said, and afterwards Congress can do what it pleases. In other words, after doing the actual expanding, you can pass as many anti-expansionist resolutions as you please. The President has no objection to a pious vow in favor of giving the Filipinos self-government when they are "fit" for it. If he is to be the one to determine when they are fit, that is all he cares to know. Meanwhile he can go on with a military government, and can so radically change the status and relations of the islands that any other solution than retaining them for ever will appear more and more impossible. And why do the Democrats limit their resolution to the Philippines? Why not apply their principles to Porto Rico as well? Is it only westward that they are opposed to expanding, and only to the Malays that they wish to secure a free and independent government? These questions suggest a moral as well as political weakness in this proposed Democratic resolution; and as Mr. Howell admits that many Democratic Congressmen will not vote even for that, the chances of their accomplishing anything of value in that way seem small indeed.

In some observations which are ostensibly in support of Col. Roosevelt's views as to the proper government of our new possessions, the *Tribune* says:

> "The final character of our colonial rule depends on the people, not on the President. No Administration makes the spoils system, but the popular pressure against which Presidents with varying force contend, and the public opinion which encourages or discourages them in resisting spoilsmen. The President may devise the best civil-service system imaginable for the new possessions, but it will not solve the problem unless American public opinion makes it discreditable and dangerous for politicians to try to make the colonial service a perquisite."

Why does not the final character depend upon the President? He is to make the appointments, is he not? If he submits to the popular pressure of the spoils system, how do you go about it to reach the conclusion that the people are responsible for his weakness? Did the people decree, when they elected McKinley, that as President he should make only such appointments as Quay and Hanna and Platt approved? How can the politicians succeed in making the colonial service a perquisite unless McKinley consents to it? Have you seen any sign that the people do not approve, heartily and unanimously, the selection of Gen. Wood and Gen. Ludlow, and can you see any sign that they will refuse to give like approval to every other first-rate appointment that he may make? Why do you put upon "the people" a responsibility which belongs entirely to the President? The people pay him $50,000 a year to bear this responsibility for them, and if he refuses to bear it, and throws it back upon them, he should not take the place.

The report of the minority of the Committee on Military Affairs against the increase of the regular army to 100,000 men is a strong document, and furnishes ground upon which all opponents of the mad rush for Imperialism can safely stand. This army will cost the American people $150,000,000. We are now paying $140,000,000 for pensions. So our military outlay, if the new army bill passes, will be $290,000,000, which is larger than the military charge of any European Power. This new charge cannot be met by the present revenues of the country. Shall the American taxpayer bow his neck to heavier burdens in order to bestow upon the

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Filipinos, by powder and ball, a government which they do not want? This is the real question involved in the pending army bill.

A recent order of the War Department discharging a major, a captain, and a first lieutenant of one of the United States volunteer regiments for inefficiency furnishes an excellent example of what may be expected to recur often if the Hull bill for the reorganization of the army is allowed to pass in its present form. These three officers of the ten so-called immune regiments were appointed by the President early last summer, together with 427 other officers, of whom not more than fifteen were regular army men, the others being without special military fitness and experience. As a result, the condition of these regiments has given rise to one scandal after another. The two stationed at or near Santiago have been so totally lacking in discipline and efficiency that Gen. Wood was forced to send for a regular regiment to keep them in order and to do their work, while protesting against their retention in the service. Of the First Regiment a regular army officer reported in October that "150 men were sick and 11 officers, of whom over 80 have malarial fever"; that the "Colonel, Lieutenant-Colonel, one Major, and the Adjutant, are sick"; and that as regards discipline, the "state of affairs is deplorable; no control of the men is had by their officers." He furnishes also some almost incredible instances of lawlessness and debauchery in a long report to the War Department. Yet, in the face of such instances as these, the chairman of the House military committee is pressing a bill which will create at once 1,500 vacancies in the grade of lieutenant, with no provision whatever that the appointees to these places shall be any more competent than the three officers above mentioned. After wearing the uniform of the United States and drawing unearned pay for five months, the latter have been returned to civil life by a military board which found them totally incompetent to perform their duties.

Gen. Miles did not hesitate to tell some plain truths in his testimony before the War Investigating Commission on December 21, and in the very short time allotted to his examination he placed the inefficiency of various staff departments beyond all doubt. We have had all sorts of contradictory testimony as to the medical supplies of Gen. Shafter's army, but Gen. Miles has settled for all time the question as to the accountability for the shortage. "There was at no time a sufficient medical supply," either of men or materials, was his summing up of the situation, and his statement that to Gen. Shafter alone was left the proper loading of the transports, places the responsibility fairly and squarely upon the latter for the loss of the four soldiers of the Thirty-third Michigan Regiment, among others, who died because of "lack of medicines," and for the total giving out of the supply within fourteen days after reaching Cuba. Gen. Ludlow, the new Military Governor of Havana, according to Gen. Miles, has to answer for the lack of any proper boats for disembarking the army on its arrival off Siboney, he having been sent to several places to collect a proper equipment. The Quartermaster's and Commissary's departments also came in for sharp criticism from the commanding general, and his account of the "embalmed beef" furnished to his troops, "which I had expected you gentlemen [of the Commission] to get on to," may furnish another reason for the rapid physical deterioration of the army, as well as the clue to one of the worst outrages committed or permitted by the War Department at the expense of the soldiers of the United States.

Senator Hanna, it appears, is opposed to the increase of the navy which has received the sanction of the Department. He thinks that we have ships enough now, either afloat or under contract, to meet our probable needs, and that the science of naval architecture is in such a changing and fluid state that the ships we build now may be obsolete almost as soon as they are finished. If Mr. Hanna should add to these reasons for going slow the further one that we are actually facing a deficit, and that we shall not be able to pay for new ships without devising new taxes, he would supply a more convincing argument to his colleagues, and would divulge the reason which has most weight in his own mind. As surely as the seasons come and go, the surplus in the Treasury will vanish, and then political troubles will begin. Economies can be practised more easily in not building new ships than in any other way.

A correspondent engaged in the hardware trade calls our attention to the Cuban duties on cutlery and to those of the United States on the same articles. On ordinary pocket-knives, costing $4 per dozen, the American rate is $4 per dozen. The Cuban rate is 20 cents per dozen. "Comment seems unnecessary," our correspondent adds. We think, on the other hand, that comment is very necessary. We think that a Trust is needed to enable our manufacturers to undersell the British in Cuba by charging double the value of the goods to domestic consumers. Perhaps such a Trust already exists. The multiplication of the octopus tribe is so rapid nowadays that it is impossible to keep track of them. It will only be necessary, after a little, to find out what trades are susceptible of combination and monopoly and what are not. Then a catalogue of the Trusts can be made with unfailing certainty.

The United States Senate on Tuesday week ratified a bargain which was made by one of its members three years ago for the gift of an important Federal office in exchange for a vote and "influence" for McKinley in the Republican national convention of 1896. A. T. Wimberly was confirmed as Collector of the Port of New Orleans on the 20th of December, 1898, because Mark Hanna, in the winter of 1895-'96, promised him this reward if Wimberly would vote for McKinley instead of Reed at St. Louis the next summer, and if McKinley should be elected President. The agreement has been carried out, despite earnest protests by reputable Republicans of Louisiana, who showed that Wimberly had no commercial or social standing; that he had twice been removed from office under charges, once for conspiring to sell the Republican vote in the Louisiana Legislature to the lottery company—a charge which Wimberly confessed was true; that he had obtained money under false pretences; and that he was part owner of one of the lowest "dives" in New Orleans. All this counted for nothing against the fact that the President's personal representative had promised Wimberly the collectorship for his share in nominating McKinley in 1896, and the consideration that promises made three years ago must be kept if the Wimberlys are to take any stock in the similar agreements which within a year must be made for the convention of 1900.

The appointment of such a man to the most important Federal office in the metropolis of Louisiana illustrates very clearly why the Republican party is nothing more than a close corporation for electing delegates and securing "plums" in exchange, not only in Louisiana but throughout the South—for the same system prevails in all parts of that section. The incumbent of the chief Federal office in South Carolina has just slapped the business community of Charleston in the face. For eighteen years William E. Milligan has held a responsible position in the custom-house, which he has filled so satisfactorily under five collectors that the two Democrats among them retained him, although he is a Republican. Last week Collector Tolbert removed Milligan, without assigning any reason, and appointed in his place a negro politician from another part of the State, who is without a particle of experience or any known fitness for the place. When asked for an explanation, the Collector "emphatically said that the public had nothing to do with the appointment; that he did not care what the people thought, as long as he drew his

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salary, conducted the office as he thought best, and to the approval of the authorities at Washington." The office in question is under the civil-service rules, which forbid a removal without the assignment of a reason and without an opportunity for defence, so that it is possible the wrong may be righted.

The South is behaving sensibly in the matter of what the nation may properly do for the ex-Confederate soldiers. President McKinley's suggestion that the graves of the men who died in behalf of the South ought to be cared for as well as those of the men who died for the Union, is universally commended in that part of the country, as it has been with almost equal unanimity in the North. But the proposition brought forward by an unrepresentative Southern man in the Senate and by a Southerner of no particular consequence in the House, that the surviving Confederates be put upon an equality with the Union veterans on the pension roll, does not arouse enthusiasm in the South. The Richmond (Va.) *Dispatch* says that it "cannot approve the course of those Southern members of Congress who have made moves looking to Federal aid for disabled Confederate soldiers"; that "they mean well, but err in judgment"; and that, if anything is to be done in this direction, it is for the President, his Grand Army associates, and the North generally, to take action in the matter. The Greenville (S. C.) *News* is still more emphatic. "The proposition that the Government shall take care of the Confederate disabled and aged is going too far," it says, and it adds:

> "For our living we should ask no favors. It is our duty and should be our privilege to care for them. We are rich enough and strong enough to do it. It would be disgraceful for us to allow the Government to care for our veterans, however good its will might be. The South can take care of its veterans and will do it. We hope every Southern representative and Senator in Congress will vote against every proposition to admit Southern veterans to national soldiers' homes."

Alabama is going to follow the example of Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana by practically disfranchising the negro. The Governor has just signed a bill passed by the Legislature for the election of a convention to make a new Constitution for the State. There are various things in the present instrument, framed nearly a quarter of a century ago, which need to be changed to adapt it to new conditions; but the chief motive for calling a convention is to devise a scheme for eliminating the colored vote under the forms of law. The most effective speech made for the measure in either branch of the Legislature was by the representative from Lowndes County, a white Democrat living in the heart of the "black belt," who pointed out that, when the State was "redeemed" from carpet-bag rule, 28,000 negroes in his county confronted 5,000 whites, who for twenty-eight years "have upheld the banner of white supremacy and civilization"; that since then 1,000 of its white inhabitants have moved away, in order to avoid what they deemed the inevitable; "but 4,000 white people still remain, both Populists and Democrats, and with locked shields still remain holding the fort and looking to you for relief."

Col. Roosevelt made a very nice distinction—so nice, in fact, that it is extremely difficult for the average politician to draw it—in his speech on Thursday evening at the New England Society's dinner, when he said: "I trust it is not necessary for me to say that when I mean practical methods I do not mean foul methods. I have never regarded practical politics, for instance, as being the politics of foulness. I think they are unpractical in the long run." This is in line with all the new Governor's utterances, both during the campaign and since election. It is also in line with his entire public career, for in everything that he has said and done he has held the unvarying position that all political rascals look alike to him, whether they be marked with Republican or Democratic labels. He is clearly going to put in operation in the government of this State his ideas of practical politics without foulness. It will be interesting to notice what members of his party will separate themselves from him in this experiment, thus taking the position that really practical politics must be allied to foulness. The sad fate of Gov. Black is likely to exert a restraining influence upon all persons inclined to take this step.

Quay has decided that audacity is his only safety. The election of a United States Senator by the Pennsylvania Legislature will not take place until some days after the 7th of January, when his case is to come before the Supreme Court on the appeal carried to that tribunal on technical grounds. Of course, every consideration of propriety, and even of decency, demands that no action shall be taken by the Republican members of the Legislature which will commit them, until after a decision by the court which shall vindicate the boss from the charge of stealing public funds deposited in the Philadelphia bank which he controlled. But the only sure way of tying up doubtful Republican members is by holding a party caucus before the case comes up in court. So Quay has given orders that the caucus shall meet at Harrisburg on the 3d of January, or four days before the time set for the hearing. In other words, as the Philadelphia *Ledger* puts it, "the Republican Senators and Representatives are to be instructed by Mr. Quay to nominate him to the great office of Senator of the United States at a time when he is under indictment for conspiracy with others to improperly use the moneys of the State, and while he is endeavoring by legal technicality and device to avoid the opportunity given him to prove his innocency."

It is reported from Des Moines, Iowa, that at a conference of Democratic leaders of that State on December 20, it was decided to drop the issue of 16 to 1 in the next campaign, and, while endorsing the Chicago platform generally, to declare that it was only tentative as regards the money question. This decision is in accord with that which ex-Gov. Boies reached a year ago. He said then that the ratio of 16 to 1 was impossible. The Iowa Democrats did not agree with him then, but they have followed him a little later. Probably Mr. Boies is now opposed to any ratio, and probably the Iowa Democrats will be ready to drop the silver issue altogether, as Mr. Bryan seems inclined to, before the campaign of 1900 comes on. This education of the enemy is probably due to the Republicans of Iowa, who made the issue of the last campaign on the gold standard without qualification or apology. And this splendid example was the result in large measure of the intelligence and pluck of Gov. Leslie M. Shaw, who has proved himself a party leader of the old and honored type—men who frame policies for the country, instead of following what they conceive to be the drift of the majority.

Some voices are heard in Spain speaking words of truth and soberness. A distinguished Spanish scientist, Señor Federico Rubio, addressed a communication to the *Liberal* a little time ago, in which he spared no words in denunciation of the incompetency and corruption of the Spanish Government. He said that he had travelled extensively in Europe and America, and had studied the politics of the leading civilized nations, and nowhere, he averred, are "the elections so fraudulent, the boss system (*caciquismo*) so deeply rooted, the courts so venal, the law so little respected, or the administration so bad" as in Spain. Señor Rubio scattered to the winds the excuses made, in particular by the navy officials. Their ships, forsooth, had not their proper armament, and were otherwise in bad condition. Well, whose fault was it? That of the very officers who were now making such a clamor, but who for years had been idling about the departments, squandering the public funds, and preparing certain defeat for the navy. All that Spain had done was to demonstrate to the world the total incompetence and rottenness of her public service in all its branches. And the very politicians who had brought all these woes upon their country, were proposing to go on with their scheming and corrupt government.

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THE CONSCRIPTION.

The *Economist*, perhaps the soberest and most thoughtful of the English newspapers, has an article on the Continental armaments which no civilized man can read without a shudder. The writer calls attention to the steady and enormous increase in the armies and navies of Europe. Within the present year an immense addition to the armies of both Germany and Russia is proposed. There is always some weak point which has to be strengthened, some designing neighbor whose force has to be equalled. We can all remember here when Lodge used to warn us of the danger we ran from England's occupation of Halifax. But more alarming than the increase of force is, the *Economist* says, the increasing power and importance of what is called "the general staff"—that is, the small group of officers who are in control of each army, and arrogate to themselves exclusive knowledge of what force and what measures are necessary for the defence of the country, and begin to treat the civil power with a certain contempt. Illustrations of this are best seen in France in the Dreyfus affair, but they may be found everywhere. In Germany, popular liberty has already been practically suppressed by the military power. The *Economist* says:

"The staffs are perpetually advising for sound reasons increases in the proportion of artillery and cavalry, both of them very expensive arms; they ask for new barracks or fortifications, and they suggest improvements in diet and equipment. More officers, too, and non-commissioned officers are needed for more men; short service implies strenuous work, which soon exhausts equipments; and behind all these sources of an outlay which bewilders the Treasuries, there is another, sometimes more expensive than all. Scientific discovery never ceases: some one is always inventing more rapid cannon, or machine-guns which will pour more bullets, or a rifle which will fire fifteen shots while the old ones fired twelve; and the moment the new weapons are proved and tested satisfactorily, they have to be accepted. If not, the Power which does accept them may master the whole Continent, for soldiers, however brave, will not stand to be shot down in masses by superior machines, to which their own machines can make no adequate reply. The Dervishes are among the bravest men in the world, but the slaughter caused by British Maxims and rifles cowed even them, and European soldiers in this respect are not more stanch than Arabs. There seems, indeed, to be no limit to the expenditure except the positive exhaustion of the Treasuries; and if these huge armies are determined to spend all revenue upon their own organization, that may be a long way off yet, for, though economists suspect, they do not yet know, where the productive limit of taxation is."

The writer adds that in his belief the peace proposals of the Czar will be more seriously discussed at the coming conference than most people imagine, and that a vigorous effort in the direction of disarmament may result from it. But he alleges that the military party in every country are thinking and talking of another remedy than disarmament, and that is the very characteristic one of forcing on a decisive war which would be so bloody and exhausting that it would settle all pending questions for one or two generations, and put every nation in its proper place for an indefinite period, as the long war with Napoleon did. Then, too, it would, they think, cause such slaughter as to put an end for the moment to that pressure of population (in all modern states except France) on the resources of the country which keeps up an incessant struggle for colonies all over the world. It must be observed, however, that the nation which has least need of colonies is to-day the most eager for a fight, and some slaughter—namely, our own. We have no pressure of population, no encroaching neighbors, and no "general staff," and yet there is no nation so desirous of a "set-to" with somebody as ours. This must be rather puzzling for the publicists and disheartening for the home missionaries.

There is an instructive passage in Taine's 'Régime Moderne' (in his 'Origines de la France Contemporaine') on the conscription, which was first introduced by Napoleon, and has since been adopted by all the European Powers except England. Numerous as were the wars before his time, this mode of raising an army was not thought of, and Taine points out powerfully how much more injurious to our civilization the present system is than the old one was. The old system drew off for military service only those men who had no regular occupation, who had, in some way, broken with society and disliked regular industry, and for whom the ordinary working of civil life supplied no discipline. The absorption of this class in a voluntarily enlisted army is a positive gain to any community, as it may be said to drain off the peccant humors from the body politic. The men whom it can best spare select themselves without trouble for what ought to be the meanest office in any state after that of the public executioner, the killing of public enemies. Under the conscription, the best as well as the worst young men are remorselessly seized, taken away from useful occupations, and compelled to pass the flower of their years with the scum of the population, learning an odious trade which they mean to drop as soon as they recover their freedom. The successful attempt made in our late war to persuade doctors, lawyers, and merchants that it was a glorious thing to serve in the ranks at $13 a month, killing people who had never injured you, under orders from the politicians, at a moment when, according to all reports, the souls of the Continental youth are, after ample trial, turning from the business with disgust, is one of the most curious episodes of the nineteenth century.

THE CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY.

It is reported that Sir Julian Pauncefote has received instructions from Lord Salisbury to negotiate with Secretary Hay for the abrogation or modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. This news may be premature, but, being in accord with the outgivings of influential organs of English public opinion, we may assume that there is considerable foundation for it. We have held heretofore that the treaty was a good thing for both countries, and we still hold to that opinion; but if both countries agree in good temper to change or repeal it, of course no objection can be found to such procedure. Nevertheless, the principles upon which the treaty is based ought to be preserved, and no doubt will be. The reason for such a treaty is that the opening of a passage for ships between the two great oceans saves about fifteen thousand miles of navigation to the commerce which has occasion to use it. The exclusive possession of such a route by one country would give it an advantage in competitive traffic that would amount to a monopoly, which other nations could not endure. It would be an unfair advantage, and would lead either to the construction of a second canal, or, perhaps, to war for the possession and use of the first one.

To avoid these contingencies the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was negotiated. It pledged the governments of the United States and Great Britain never to acquire or maintain for themselves exclusive control over a ship canal through Central America, or to erect or maintain any fortifications commanding the same, or in the vicinity thereof, or occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any part of Central America; or to assume or exercise dominion over the same, or take advantage of any intimacy, or use any alliance, connection, or influence that either may possess with any state or government through whose territory the said canal may pass, for the purpose of acquiring or holding, directly or indirectly, for the citizens or subjects of the one any rights or advantages in regard to commerce or navigation through the said canal which shall not be offered on the same terms to the citizens or subjects of the other. The treaty also pledged the two countries to guarantee the neutrality of such canal, and to permit its use on terms of equality by all nations, and to use their influence to secure the adhesion of other nations to the principles of said treaty.

It is understood that all that Great Britain desires is that the neutrality of the canal shall be guaranteed and its use for commercial purposes secured to all nations. Probably she will offer the text of the Suez Canal convention as a model for a new arrangement respecting that of Nicaragua. The Suez Canal, although controlled by Great Britain as the administrator of Egypt and as the owner of a very large, if not a ma-

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jority, interest in its shares, is neutralized by an agreement of all the Powers which have made themselves parties to it, or may hereafter choose to make themselves parties to it. By this agreement the canal is open in time of war as well as in time of peace, on equal terms, to every vessel of commerce or of war, without distinction of flag, and is not liable to blockade. The canal itself in time of war is declared to be in the nature of a neutral port. During our recent war with Spain the Spanish warships were allowed to pass through it, and ours would have been allowed to follow them if there had been occasion. If Great Britain offers the text of the Suez convention as a substitute for the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, we shall probably object to the clause which allows its free use in time of war. There is no reason why we should so object, but the public mind is somewhat clouded by the spectacle of the *Oregon's* journey around Cape Horn, and will probably insist that we shall have the exclusive right to send fighting ships through the canal (if we own it) in time of war. The fact that this is a barren right unless we control the sea at both ends of the canal is lost sight of at the moment by us, but is evidently not lost sight of by Great Britain, since it is intimated that she will not insist upon the right to send her war-ships through it in case of war with us. As we could disable the canal at any moment and trap any of her ships that might be in it, she would not be likely to make active use of it in time of war with us even if she had the right to do so guaranteed by treaty. So she is not giving up anything valuable if she gives up that claim.

It is to be hoped, from all accounts, that a friendly negotiation on this subject is about to take place. A great deal of ignorance and prejudice will be cleared out of the way by it, and the people of the United States will thus be enabled to take a calmer view of the question of building the canal than they can take at present. When all other obstacles are removed, we shall be better able to weigh and estimate those with which Nature herself has surrounded the undertaking.

SHAFTER AND WELLINGTON.

We think too highly of Gen. Shafter to affront him by comparing him, as a General, with any such "back number" as Wellington; but there are some curious analogies between the latter's first military expedition to Portugal in 1808 and Shafter's to Santiago in 1898. Both consisted of about 20,000 men, and both sailed to expel a foreign army from a country which it was oppressing. Wellington counted upon the sympathy and coöperation of the Portuguese as Shafter did upon the Cubans, and both found themselves leaning on a broken reed. Both Generals were superseded in command, just after having fought a battle, by the arrival of a superior officer. The subsequent operations and negotiations led in each case to a vast amount of complaint and recrimination. Wellington was accused of having needlessly and rashly risked his force, as Shafter was. There were charges of inefficiency brought against the British commissariat in 1808, just as there were against the American in 1898. The historical parallel might, in fact, be pursued into many more details.

In one point, however, it fails. In Wellington's case a military court of inquiry was promptly ordered to sift the whole matter to the bottom. It sat for weeks and months. Wellington was heard and cross-examined, and so were his superiors in command, Sir Harry Burrard and Sir Hew Dalrymple. Each of them was allowed to call witnesses. Each of them was allowed to confront and cross-examine the others. The result was that the whole truth was brought out. The charge and prejudice against Wellington were dispelled, and he was sent back to Portugal in chief command the next year to begin that wonderful series of campaigns which led him on from Talavera and Badajoz and Salamanca to Waterloo.

What has been our course in similar circumstances? We have had, instead of a court of inquiry, an investigating committee unknown to military law. It was a body which (we say it without meaning offence) commanded the respect of the public neither by its personnel nor by its methods. It is notorious that the abler and better known men whom the President first invited to sit on the committee declined to serve. They did so, we presume, from no lack of patriotism, but because they clearly perceived that an investigation so conducted could lead to nothing satisfactory. The committee has no power to compel witnesses to attend, nor to protect them for testimony given. Its cross-examinations have been farcical. It has never brought differing officers together before it in order to reconcile their evidence or to discover which one told the truth. The general commanding has contradicted the officers under him, and they him. The Surgeon-General has said one thing and Gen. Shafter another. Commissary-General Eagan is just aching to get at Gen. Miles, and Adjt.-Gen. Corbin practically accuses him of lying. Meanwhile the committee have sat helplessly by, and allowed all this stream of accusation and rumor and insinuation to flow past them without making a single rational attempt to clarify its muddy waters. No wonder that the public have become wearied and disgusted with the whole wretched makeshift.

The extraordinary thing is that the statutes of the United States make full provision for just such inquiries, and prescribe the precise way in which they are to be pursued. It was said at the time that Mr. McKinley was obliged to take a haphazard and unauthorized committee because Congress was not in session. Nothing of the kind. Section 1342 of the Revised Statutes, containing the Articles of War, gives ample warrant and power for appointing exactly the kind of court of inquiry that was so effective in Wellington's case. Article 115 says that "a court of inquiry, to examine into the nature of any transaction of, or accusation or imputation against, any officer or soldier, may be ordered by the President." The next six articles specify the composition of the court; give it power to administer oaths and to compel attendance of witnesses, whom the parties accused are to be permitted to confront and cross-examine; and provide for authenticating the proceedings—describe, in short, the necessary machinery for a legal and searching inquiry into any subject affecting the well-being of the army or the honor and conduct of any officer. This is obviously the regular and accepted course which the President, if he wanted a real inquiry, should have followed. It is the course which the dragging and shuffling proceedings of the investigating committee make more imperative than ever.

It is indeed incredible that army affairs can be left dangling at loose-ends as they now are. Some suggest a congressional committee of investigation, and a resolution to appoint one is now before the House committee on military affairs. Such a committee might easily be superior to the broken-backed affair still prolonging a useless existence; but the proper method, the exact method, is to have a military court of inquiry, such as the laws prescribe. If the President does not order it, it may be demanded by the commanding officer or any "officer or soldier whose conduct is to be inquired into." We do not see how some of the men of high rank in the army can fail to demand such a court. As the case stands, more than one of them rests under grievous imputations. These they might be able to dissipate if brought face to face with their accusers before a court of inquiry. Certainly they cannot afford to lie down under them. We are glad to see that the Commissary-General has already said he will demand a court of inquiry to investigate the charges made against him by Gen. Miles. It is the least he can do. It is the only way in which the truth will be arrived at. Let Sternberg face Shafter, and Miles meet Alger, and Eagan and Corbin come together before a court of inquiry, with the right to cross-examine each other, and we shall have some chance of touching bottom. The present committee has done little but fling upon the public a mass of unpleasant scandal and rumor. The army cannot afford to rest under it.

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Wellington once wrote bitterly that the British army could not stand either success or failure; our army has had both, but it has had something still more demoralizing, namely, a broadcast sowing of insinuations against the honesty or efficiency of its officers. The honor and discipline of the army demand that all these things should be cleared up as speedily as possible by a court of inquiry.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH TROUBLE.

There have been a great many allusions of late, in articles and speeches, to the French "pinpricking" of England and the protracted annoyance from that quarter borne by Lord Salisbury with saintly patience and resignation, though at last they became intolerable; but we have seen no statement of them as detailed, and supported with as much documentary proof, as an article by an anonymous writer which appears in the last number of the *Fortnightly*. He goes over one by one French offences against England. He begins with the French seizure of Tunis, which is as flagrant a breach of faith, the English try to think, as the English seizure of Egypt; but with this manifest difference, that the English asked the French to join them in the occupation of Egypt for reasons that were obvious, while Tunis was occupied on false pretences and without any apparent advantage for France except keeping Italy out. The pretence of repelling or chastising the "Kroumirs" was exposed almost as soon as it was produced. Then follows the case of Madagascar. This the French seized without any pretence whatever, and Lord Salisbury tamely acquiesced in it on condition that British goods should continue to be admitted to the island at lower rates of duty. To this the French consented, but after two or three years this condition was abrogated without any reason given, and Lord Salisbury again acquiesced, the main article in his policy being at that period that peace must be preserved with France at any cost.

The main charge which the writer brings, and the most serious one of all, is the charge that France has been engaged for some years in a conspiracy to stop the advance of England in the Sudan, to bring about her defeat by the Dervishes and the Abyssinians, involving as it would frightful slaughter of her troops and the triumph of barbarism in a peculiarly revolting shape in that vast region. He produces many quotations from official and other documents, showing that the formation of this conspiracy was going on for many months, if not for years; that all the Continental Powers were cognizant of it, that so were the leading French publicists, that Marchand's expedition was started in pursuance of it, that negotiations were carried on with Menelek in order to further the scheme. If his story be true, nothing more devilish has been concocted against a friendly people in modern times, or more damaging to civilization; and if the French are unable to deny his statements or explain them away, it is hard to see how the two nations can be on good terms for another generation.

There is no doubt that this story is supported, and given an air of probability, by the language of the Continental press and diplomatists during the past two years. Hatred of England and a desire to drag her down, very like what used to prevail in the United States, were their leading note. The appearance of the American fleet led to a distinct abatement of this hostility, and also to a proposal to interfere in the Spanish war which Germany and France are now stoutly denying, Bismarck fashion. The British refusal and the tremendous fuss raised in England about the Anglo-Saxon alliance seem to have blown the combination to pieces, and the Marchand occupation of Fashoda, of which the French boasted as a military operation of great glory, declined into a simple exploring expedition. The Omdurman victory gave the finishing touch to the whole business, and everybody concerned is busy denying, and wondering that such savage passions should agitate the breasts of Englishmen.

The whole affair is naturally treated as a great triumph for Lord Salisbury, whose patience and submissiveness are now said to be explained. It was to give the French a checkmate at Fashoda that he is said to have put up with the Venezuela outbreak here, with the Sultan's massacres in Armenia, and with the Russian trickery in China. He has, it is said, borne all these years with the French bluff in Africa, feeling sure that the day was coming when he would have to tell them they must fight or "skedaddle," and the curious part of the story is that the bluff, as carried on in all the French organs, seemed to make it sure that they would fight. But the thought of fighting seems never to have entered their heads, and all their little manœuvres in Africa really appear to have been designed solely to tease. According to the writer from whom we have been quoting, they were due to a fixed belief that had taken possession of the Continent that British dominions had outgrown England's powers of retention, and that if she were boldly collared by two or three Powers she would have to give way and calmly take her place as a second-rate Power. The navies of any two Powers, the German Emperor thought, might not be a match for her, but the navies of three certainly would. Dewey's and Kitchener's victories seem to have dissipated a great many pleasing plans for a rearrangement of the map of Europe. The sensation excited by the entrance of America on the scene has not been caused nearly as much by the magnitude of our armament, or the importance of our victory, as by what is considered on the Continent the "queerness" of both England and America, and the uncertainty which nearly all Continentals feel as to what Anglo-Saxons may do next. They do not fit into the Continental system either in manners or politics.

ANTI-SEMITISM IN FRANCE.

BOSTON, December 24, 1898.

Anti-Semitism has unquestionably, in the past few years, made formidable progress in France, and at the present moment plays a considerable rôle in that country. Its more recent manifestations are too significant and diverse to permit us to shut our eyes on this astounding fact, which humiliates every liberal Frenchman. Anti-Semitism has become a power, and has transformed itself into a political party in the very country which gave to the world the Declaration of the Rights of Man, in which it is said that "all men are born free and equal"; the country which, a century ago, accorded citizenship to Jews, and since 1831 has treated their religion as a form of worship recognized by the state, and salaried its ministers equally with those of the Protestant and Catholic faith.

Numerous facts, taken at random, show the position suddenly acquired in France by this movement, which, fifteen years ago, was unknown there, and which was then talked about only as a far-off epidemic raging in backward countries like Russia, Rumania, Austria, and Germany. It will be enough to recall the part played, consciously or unconsciously, by anti-Semitic prejudice at the very beginning of the Dreyfus affair, when officers notoriously anti-Semitic were the first to suspect the Jew Dreyfus of having written that bordereau which everybody knows to-day was written by the good Christian Esterhazy, former papal Zouave. We know, too, how this prosecution, born of anti-Semitism, gave birth in turn to a new eruption of anti-Semitic passion emitting in Paris that cry of the Middle Ages, "Death to Jews!" On the other hand, for the first time, in the general elections of May last, we saw Deputies elected with the label of Anti-Semites, and in the Chamber the formation of a group (very feeble, no doubt, fifteen at most) styling itself Anti-Semitic, and which has already made a hubbub out of proportion to its importance.

A month ago the city of Algiers, the capital of our great African colony, not satisfied with having chosen as Deputy the celebrated Drumont, who had failed of election in France, and with having been for a twelvemonth the scene of veritable Jew-baitings, boycotting of Jewish traders, street rows and encounters, elected as Mayor a young agitator of Italian origin, Max Regis, scarcely twenty-five years old, and whose sole claim to the place was his having been one of the leaders of the gangs who shout, "Death to Jews!" This singular Mayor was no sooner elected than he declared he would make Algiers "uninhabitable by Jews," decided that the cry "Death to Jews" was not seditious, and in his newspaper, the *Anti-Juif*, organized a special service unknown to the press of the entire world. It consisted in the creation of a photographic outfit directed

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against the Christian women who patronized Jewish dealers, in order to publish their portraits and hold them up to the public. It must be added that the Government immediately suspended this bold and original magistrate for three months. Finally, as the latest feature betraying the violence of anti-Semitic passion in Algeria, a large French liquor-house having a Jewish representative in that country had to discharge him because its customers refused to give orders to a Jew, and a court denied the damages which the latter sought to claim from his employers.

These few details give an idea of the extent and violence of the movement. To appreciate more thoroughly its character, one need only read the report of an anti-Semite meeting in Paris or an extract from the *Libre Parole*, or call to mind the savage passions that characterized the prosecution of Zola. Not only did poor imbeciles or little street Arabs cry, "Down with the Jews!" I remember when, in the course of the trial, in company with some friends, I made signs of approval of Labori's admirable speech, officers turned furiously, saying, "They are Jews!"

Now, whence springs the anti-Semite movement, what are its causes and its real importance? I think it easy to answer these inquiries exactly and impartially. And first we must set one side the anti-Semitism of Algeria, which is peculiar to that country, and has relation to special economic and political conditions. The Jews, in fact, form in Algeria a population, scarcely assimilated, of usurers very unpopular with the lower classes, and who gained prematurely in 1870 the right of suffrage, denied to native Mussulmans. But in France anti-Semitism is quite otherwise explainable, and only through M. Édouard Drumont. To understand it we must know who M. Drumont is.

Up to 1886 M. Drumont was absolutely unknown to the public at large. He was an obscure Catholic journalist, contributing to clerical journals like the *Monde*, which is read chiefly by priests. Though graced with a certain literary and historic culture, and having published estimable historical works of which one was crowned by the Academy, Drumont vegetated poor and unknown. A Parisian by birth, he possessed by nature a railing spirit. Bred in Catholic surroundings, and living in the world of the clergy, he was at once devout and fanatical. As such, he naturally detested the republicans, who, in the train of Gambetta and Jules Ferry, made war on clericalism, expelled the Jesuits, and secularized education. The truth is, that Drumont hated with a savage hatred the enemies and what he called the "persecutors" of the Church. He swore to be revenged on them while revenging himself for the obscure mediocrity in which he had hitherto lived, whereas so many others rapidly attained success and fortune; and he wrote that astonishing book which burst like a thunder-clap, revealing his name to the general public and bringing him at once money and renown—I mean 'La France Juive.'

'Jewish France' appeared in 1886. In a very short time 115 editions were sold. On the morrow of its publication the press was full of protestations from men who declared themselves to have been libelled by the author, and of reports of duels between M. Drumont and some of his victims. Several pursued him in court, but the majority shrugged their shoulders and said: "It is a pamphlet, a raking together of calumnious stories, fabricated anecdotes, and veritable lies." A magistrate would presently, in a suit brought against M. Drumont, call it "the *Directory* of defamation." Polemics, duels, suits, are more than is needed to make a success of any book, and the public eagerly devoured that of M. Drumont.

What is to be found in the two compact volumes of which 'Jewish France' consists? First of all, scandalous tales about the principal leaders of the Republican party, whom the author reproached with being dishonest themselves, or of having disreputable relatives, or of having a foreign origin or a Jewish connection. Gambetta and Jules Simon are discovered to have been Jews—the former of Italian, the latter of German origin. Such as are not Jews themselves are accused of being in the hands of Jews. The number of worthy Christians denounced as Jews is considerable. There follows a long, bristling and pedantic history of the Jews, showing that Drumont had laboriously abstracted all the works written against them. His theory about them is summed up in this phrase: "The Semite is mercantile, avaricious, intriguing, subtle, crafty; the Aryan is a son of heaven constantly concerned with higher aspirations. The one lives in the real, the other in the ideal." Proceeding from this psychologic foundation, he shows the Frenchman that, while he was thus living, or was supposed to be living, "in the ideal," the Jew came from Frankfort, Hamburg, or Warsaw and seized upon his money, his occupation, and his land, and made him a pariah in the very country of his ancestors; has tyrannized over him by invading politics and grasping all the administrative posts and the magistracy; has insulted his faith, and expelled Catholicism from the schools and hospitals. For a thousand pages the author harps upon this one theme with examples often mendacious and with names for the most part non-Jewish.

The movement excited by Drumont's book was at the outset solely Catholic. It was singularly reinforced by two events, the Panama crash and the Dreyfus affair. In the former, by a deplorable coincidence, three of the most unpopular men, by reason of having acted as intermediaries in the great wastage and principals in the work of corruption, were Israelites. The incapable or criminal directors of the company, the corrupted Deputies or Senators were all Christians. But those who had squandered the shareholders' millions in bribes to journalists and legislators were that unscrupulous financier, Baron de Reinach; Cornelius Hertz, physician, electrician, and man of affairs; and Aaron (or Arton), clever swindler, whose history is a romance now being terminated in jail. It is quite intelligible that the small bourgeois of France who had read Drumont's tirades against the Jews, and who subsequently lost their savings in Panama, became anti-Semites with no great effort.

Next came the Dreyfus affair. In the interval, Drumont had founded his journal, the *Libre Parole*, in which he renewed daily the work of anti-Semitic defamation, by the same procedure as in his book. One may guess what arguments he could draw from the Panama revelations as from the Dreyfus process. His journal and Rochefort's were the most popular of those classed by Zola under the name of "the filthy press." But Drumont is much superior to Rochefort. However, in spite of the *Libre Parole*, and notwithstanding the support of some other reactionary journals which borrowed their anti-Semitism from Drumont, this doctrine remained purely a clerical weapon. Drumont tried in 1893 to become a Deputy, and failed pitifully. In the Chamber, anti-Semitism was represented solely by an obscure and moreover stupid Deputy, who was the laughing-stock of everybody. The Dreyfus affair, which roused this wind of folly in France, was needed to give anti-Semitism the appearance of taking shape and winning over the masses. In the May elections, Drumont was chosen in Algiers. In half-a-dozen other French districts Deputies wearing the anti-Semitic badge were elected. All without exception were charlatans who wanted to work the popular drift, or fanatics poisoned by reading the *Libre Parole*.

When once the Dreyfus affair is over, and the dementia calmed down, nothing will remain of all this, because anti-Semitism in France has no excuse for being. The Jews there are but little in excess of 80,000 to 100,000, of whom the great majority are thoroughly assimilated. If among them are many financiers who have come from Germany and have made rapid fortunes, a greater number were born in France or were brought there at an early age, and have made an honorable or illustrious name in the sciences, in literature, in the magistracy and the army. The University reckons among its best masters eminent Jews. Everywhere that competition exists, the Jews distinguish themselves by their brilliant success. The Reinach family comprises three brothers, of whom two are savants and one a politician, who are remarkable samples of the working powers and intellectual suppleness of the Jews.

Furthermore, the fact of being a Jew has not been an obstacle in the view either of popular suffrage or of the Government. In Parliament, since 1830 and 1848, there have always been representatives of Israel. At this very moment, the Senate includes four or five and the Chamber as many. In the last elections, for the first time, the fact of being a Jew proved injurious. If there have never been, as an English review recently maintained, 47 Jewish prefects out of 89, the proportion of Jews in the administration is very weighty: there are high magistrates and even generals holding to the faith of Israel. Consequently, the true France, sane and tolerant, is not anti-Semitic. The majority of the French have never seen Jews, who are in great part concentrated in the cities. And then, the French are too indifferent in matters of religion, and too deeply imbued with the principles of the Revolution, to make race distinctions. Even M. Brunetière has castigated Drumont's book (besides qualifying the anti-Semitic hatred as "animal"). Even Père Didon, a very popular Dominican preacher, has shown how puerile and absurd is the pretence that 39 millions of citizens are tyrannized over by 80 thousand.

At last even the Chamber of Deputies has struck at the Jew-baiters represented by Drumont a severe blow not to be forgotten. Only yesterday, after a speech, loudly applauded, of M. Dupuy's, in which the Premier sneered at Drumont, and declared that anti-Semitism was "an ugly and dangerous method that belonged to a past age," the Chamber condemned that "method" by a vote of 406. The Anti-Semites mustered 10 votes.

OTHON GUERLAC.

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Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE PLAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We read in the public prints, that when citizens of this republic present to President McKinley their objections to the annexation of the Philippine Islands, he listens to them respectfully, and then announces that he will be glad to consider their objections if they can suggest any better plan than the permanent holding of the islands. This on its face is a very unfair way of putting off those of us who are not dazzled by the thought of empire. If it is right for Mr. McKinley to exact of the non-expansionists better working plans than his own for a foreign policy, why is it not right, by the same logic, that when he tells us he intends to keep the islands, he should indicate his plan of government for them? In his message to Congress he says:

"I do not discuss at this time the government or the future of the new possessions which will come to us as the result of the war with Spain. Such discussion will be appropriate after the treaty of peace shall be ratified."

Has it ever occurred to Mr. McKinley that we had better have a look at our landing-place before we leap? And why is it our bounden duty to annex the islands before we have settled upon their future government? Would Mr. McKinley buy a horse if he had no place to keep it? But, notwithstanding these sober questions which merit sober answers, Mr. McKinley waves us aside with the "To-morrow, to-morrow" that brought Spain to her downfall. Yet he insists at the same time that if we expect him to recede from his present course, we must show him the way in which he should go. We decline with thanks, having no wish to do his thinking for him.

We shall have it cried in our ears that "where the American flag once waves it shall never be hauled down." It does little good to point out our course in 1848, or our pledges in the war resolution, or to remind Mr. McKinley of what he once said about "criminal aggression" and "our code of morality." We must prepare to expect scant consideration at the hands of those who are drunk with victory and the "lust of empire." But we cannot do it without first expressing our bitter sorrow at seeing the emblem of liberty being turned into an emblem of coaling-stations.

HENRY FREDRICKS.

GERMANTOWN, PA., December 24, 1898.

THE DEADLY PARALLEL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the memorable year 1814, memorable in the annals of the Scandinavian North as ushering in a new political era, Denmark was forced to relinquish her sovereignty over Norway, which latter country, under the Treaty of Kiel, should have become a provincial dependency of Sweden. But the Norwegian people, denying the right of the Danish crown to dispose of its destiny, set up a government of its own, adopted a constitution, and resisted the Swedish attempts at enforcing the provisions of the treaty by arms.

The result was the still existing union between Norway and Sweden, the fundamental idea of which is the perfect political independence of both countries. In other words, Norway gained her point, establishing the very principle of sovereignty which Sweden, by virtue of the action of the Danish State, claimed to have assumed.

Now notice the parallel. Spain, by the Treaty of Paris, in the year of our Lord 1898, is forced to surrender her sovereignty over the Philippine Islands to the United States, just as Denmark, eighty-odd years ago, disposed of Norway. But, prior to such surrender, the Filipinos had disputed the Spanish rule by an all but successful insurrection, had aided and abetted the American invasion of their country, and, finally, even before the conclusion of the treaty, had established a republican form of government among themselves. With these facts at their back, the Filipinos contend that their sovereignty cannot be bartered away by Spain, that the United States has acquired no title in equity to the islands, and that Aguinaldo and his representative assembly should be recognized as the lawful rulers of the archipelago.

And why not? The stand taken by Norway in 1814 has received the sanction of the world, and may well be cited as a precedent. Is there any essential difference between that and the situation in the Philippines to-day? The United States, seizing and proposing to hold territory acquired by force and purchase, has no more right to hold the same against the will of its people than had Sweden when she claimed Norway as her legitimate prey. The Filipinos may be semi-barbarous, but they are on their native soil, they have established at least the form of a constitutional government, and their claim to be dealt with accordingly is probably just as strong as was that of the Norwegians in their day.

At any rate, we cannot afford for our own sake to act upon a contrary supposition. Our plain duty is to carry out in our dealings with the Filipinos the principles of justice, independence, and liberty which underlie our own political system, and which have made us what we are.

LUTH JAEGER.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., December 19, 1898.

THE LATIN PLIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Like Mr. G. Rodman Paul, I have read with interest and curiosity the discussion in regard to the effect of religion on national prosperity; and I have also read with something more than curiosity the contribution which Mr. Paul himself is able to make to the discussion, viz., his quotation from Montesquieu.

Various and widely differing comments suggest themselves, but, for the sake of brevity as well as clarity, I will confine myself to only one of these. Is it not manifestly unjust to any religion based on the doctrines taught by Jesus Christ, Protestant or Catholic, to make worldly prosperity the measure of its truth, or even the measure of its success? In the face of such an effort, may not a conservative reasonably inquire why Christians should set such traps for one another—traps that gape as widely for one denomination as for another? A much more convenient authority than Montesquieu is at the elbow of any one who will take the trouble to examine it. This is the account of the Saviour's ministry as set forth in the four gospels, and the acts and teachings of the Apostles as set forth in other parts of the New Testament.

Without insisting too much on the letter, is it not certain from the spirit of these writings that neither individual nor national prosperity can be taken as a measure of the effect of religion? The case is so far otherwise that it seems impossible for such a discussion to have arisen except as the result of a vagrant thought. National prosperity means national gain as the result of trade, commerce, and the like, and is the aggregation of individual prosperity. All this is wholly beside the scheme of Christianity as set forth in the New Testament, if not (as some have claimed) wholly opposed to it. Is it not true that a philosopher, coming impartially to the question, would conclude, after a careful reading of the New Testament, that, whatever else might be said for or against it, the scheme of life and conduct therein set forth would most certainly not tend to increase the worldly prosperity of the individuals or nations seriously engaged in its practice?

If the Apostles had been charged to go about building factories and ships and soliciting capital to complete and perfect the appurtenances of traffic and trade, one could more clearly understand the drift and purport of this truly remarkable discussion.

J. C. H.

ATLANTA, GA., December 19, 1898.

PENNSYLVANIA DUTCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While at the Moravian boarding-school at Gnadenberg, in Silesia, my brother attended the University at Berlin for a winter. Then he spent two years at Heidelberg before I met him again. It was amusing to me to hear him speak German, as he had entirely changed his intonation and expression. It proved conclusively that there is a vast difference between Badenese and Prussian German, and that even foreigners are influenced by it. So it is with the German spoken in Pennsylvania, which, although now intermixed with English, can at once be recognized as originating in the Palatinate, whence the first settlers emigrated. My friend, Senator William Beidelman, who has made a study of Pennsylvania German (erroneously but generally called "Dutch"), tells me that when listening to men or women in the streets of Heidelberg, Worms, and Speier talking to each other, he could imagine himself among his farmer friends in Northampton County or anywhere in this neighborhood. The most successful writer in Pennsylvania "Dutch" at this time is Edward Ebermann, whose "Danny Kratzer" annual Christmas letters in the Bethlehem (Pa.) *Bulletin* retain the patois in its pristine purity. Mr. Ebermann also understands how to enter thoroughly into the spirit and mode of expression natural to those of our people who keep up the Pennsylvania "Dutch." For the student of philology his letters are very interesting and amusing.

ARMIN DE BONNEHEUR.

BETHLEHEM, PA., December 17, 1898.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I notice an error in the issue of the *Nation* of this date. In giving the names of some of our Ministers to England, you mention "William Welch" (*sic*). Mr. John Welsh

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of Philadelphia was the Minister you intended to name. William Welsh was a brother. Mr. John Welsh was not a rich man in the modern acceptation of the term; but in his day he was considered rich by his fellow-townsmen of this modest city.

H. G. C.

PHILADELPHIA, December 22, 1898.

Notes.

The prospectus of Mr. G. R. F. Prowse's 'Cabot to Champlain' (London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles) indicates "a cartological determination of the English, French, and Iberian Discoveries between Labrador and Maine, 1497-1633." The work will be illustrated with facsimiles and sketch-maps, and will be ready for subscribers next year at £1 12s., and £2 2s. for non-subscribers. "The object of the work, as a whole, is to systematize the study of early cartography, to form a basis for future research, and to provide the public with material at present inaccessible except to residents of London or Paris."

Three second editions of well-known works may be mentioned before the year closes which sees them published. One is Prof. Woodrow Wilson's manual, 'The State' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), now entering on its tenth year. It has been both revised and augmented, but without specification of these changes. In one particular at least it has met our strictures upon it by greater amplitude. Prof. John Watson's 'Outline of Philosophy' (Macmillan) was reviewed by us in the spring of 1895, under the now discarded title of 'Comte, Mill and Spencer,' but in broadening the scope of his work the author has availed himself of "Notes, Historical and Critical" massed at the end, and adding nearly 200 pages to the total. The group of essays 'Hellenica,' edited by Dr. Evelyn Abbott, has waited nearly twenty years for its reissue (Longmans), having first appeared in 1880. It has undergone but very few changes.

The foregoing should be accompanied by brief mention of a rather pleasing edition of Miss Burney's 'Evelina' (Lippincott), with slight but sufficient pen drawings by Arthur Rackham; and Dickens's 'Uncommercial Traveller' in Mr. Lang's Gadshill Edition (London: Chapman & Hall: New York: Scribners), with an etched portrait of Dickens dreamily surrounded by the characters of his fancy. Finally, we note the appearance of still another volume in Constance Garnett's translation of Turgeneff's works, 'A Lear of the Steppes, and Other Stories,' and the eighth in the translations of Björnson edited by Edmund Gosse, 'Absalom's Hair, and A Painful Memory'—both bearing Macmillan's imprint.

Thackeray's 'Christmas Books' come to us as the latest volume of the Biographical Edition (Harpers). Mrs. Ritchie's introduction shows the almost chance origin and slow accretion of these writings, in which, after all, so much of the author's most characteristic humor displayed itself. A separate "Fitz-Gerald chapter" also finds room in the introduction, giving Thackeray's daughter an opportunity to display memorials of the friendship of her father and "Old Fitz." After the novelist's death, FitzGerald turned over to his family the letters and sketches innumerable which Thackeray had sent him in the course of the many years of unequally sustained intimacy; and these are here freely drawn upon, and some of FitzGerald's rejoinders are also supplied. It is a pleasant light, though it can scarcely be called a new one, thus shed upon a celebrated friendship.

Two new features greatly improve, while increasing the bulk of, the 'International Directory of Booksellers, and Bibliophile's Manual,' now in its fourteenth year (Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg). One is an inclusion of sellers of *new* books (as well as old); the other is a "Bibliography of Works of Reference," more accurately to be described as a list of bibliographies. It is immensely convenient to have in a compact little volume lists of booksellers, publishers, and public libraries the world over, of learned societies and institutions, theological colleges, book collectors; book-trade, antiquarian and historical journals, and much other pertinent matter. The typography is tasteful and clear.

We receive from Lemcke & Buechner the 136th edition of the *Almanach de Gotha*. In the always interesting words from the sanctum which introduce the invaluable world statistics, we read this year of attacks, almost minatory, on its genealogical impartiality in behalf of private interests; but "the *Almanach* is not in politics, and never will be," and those who do not like its abstention must lump it ("Sit ut est aut non sit"). To be accurate, the editors still spare no pains, and they tell what trouble they were at to assure themselves that the murdered Empress Elizabeth was born (as the *Almanach* has always recorded) at Munich, and not at Possenhofen, according to the newspapers, and even according to the inscription on her bier. The Emperor Francis Joseph is fitly honored with one of the regulation portraits of this issue, in view of his jubilee reign; and King Albert of Saxony, who has sat on the throne for twenty-five years, Oom Paul, and Prince William of Wied supply the other three. Much extension is given, and more will be given hereafter, to mention of the orders with which grand personages are decorated. The disturbance in political geography and government caused by the war with Spain can be straightened out only in another year. The protocol of peace textually reported in the appendix is accompanied also by the treaty between China and Germany respecting Kiao-Chau; and this most desirable innovation on the part of the *Almanach* will become a permanent feature, and will cause the back volumes to be cherished more than ever.

Two ex-consuls in Santiago, Pulaski F. Hyatt and John T. Hyatt, unite to produce 'Cuba, its Resources and Opportunities' (J. S. Ogilvie Co.). The authors write as frank annexationists, no matter what we said when going to war, and from the point of view of those who believe that there are millions in it for the men who are first in the field. The information and statistics they have put together on the usual topics of agriculture and mining and transportation are scrappy, but, we judge, sufficiently accurate. Exception must be made, however, of the chapter on "Language," with its list of "Spanish Words and Phrases." What with misprints and misunderstandings, many pitfalls are here laid for the feet of the unwary.

A unique copy of the first part of Paine's 'Age of Reason,' printed in Paris in the second year of the French Republic, lately discovered in this city, has been made the occasion for a reprint of the entire work by the Truth-Seeker Co. (It is stated also, that the incessant demand for the work has worn out the plates hitherto used.) The matter found in this, but suppressed in later editions, makes it probable that we have here the original and first. Mr. M. D. Conway's account of the discovery, and transcript of the new matter, communicated to the *Athenæum* in August last, are reprinted in the present preface. The volume is printed in liberal type, and is furnished with a number of portraits of Paine, views of houses associated with him, and of his monument at New Rochelle. There is, critically, very little transition in passing from 'The Age of Reason' to Prof. Goldwin Smith's 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence'; but while for Paine the stereotype plates of the "infidel" hue-and-cry are not yet worn out, his countryman across the border is perforce tolerated and not abused.

Another sign of the times is that the volume of selections of 'American Prose' edited by Prof. George R. Carpenter of Columbia and recently published by Macmillan, introduces for the first time, so far as we are aware, in any similar collection, examples from Paine; and that after gems from Cotton Mather and Jonathan Edwards. The selections from Paine have been made by Prof. Munroe Smith, who prefaces them with a brief biographical sketch and appreciation, without, however, attempting to characterize his author's style, further than in the remark that "Paine's best work is rather journalism than literature." But (speaking still of the best only) would there were more such journalism nowadays. Prof. Carpenter has been assisted, as by Prof. Smith, so by other well-known writers in the case of each of his prosaists—Poe by Lewis Edward Gates, Whitman by George Santayana, Charles Brockden Brown by T. W. Higginson, G. W. Curtis by Howells, Parkman by John Fiske, etc.

It is, at first sight, difficult to determine what may be the public addressed in 'How to Enjoy Pictures,' by M. S. Emery (Boston: Prang Educational Co.), the instruction given is so very primitive, while the book can hardly be intended for children. It is quite possible, however (it is even probable), that there exists a class of people not too uneducated to read a book who yet need to be told that the way to enjoy a picture is to look at it more than once, and to try to find out what the artist meant to say—to try to understand the story in a story picture, the character in a portrait, even the general lines of composition in a landscape or figure subject. Miss Emery gives a singularly mixed lot of examples, good, bad, and indifferent, and her exposition is generally not unsound as far as it goes, though it goes but a very little way. That her erudition is not profound is shown in her remarks on Bastien's "Jeanne d'Arc": "A vision is shaping itself," she says, "the vision of a warrior in armour. . . . Some think that the mail-clad figure is the Dauphin, others see in it the Maid herself. . . . The flower-crowned figures are at least angelic; the one most plainly seen has sometimes been thought to be the Virgin Mary. It is difficult, and indeed hardly necessary, to identify the figures beyond a doubt." The first child's book on Jeanne, that by M. Boutet de Monvel, for instance, would have informed Miss Emery that the visions which

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appeared to Jeanne were St. Michael, St. Catherine, and St. Margaret. Miss Emery's rearrangement of Puvis's "Electricity" is certainly thoroughly bad and also perfectly impossible, but this hardly of itself proves the great merit of the composition as it was originally made, and her attempted analysis of a Madonna by Botticelli emphasizes a line which the artist evidently took great pains to avoid. Finally, the description of Sir Edward Burne-Jones as " a distinguished member of the Royal Academy" is, at least, misleading.

An interesting instance of useful work well performed is the translation of English scientific books into German made by the wife of Von Helmholtz in conjunction sometimes with the wife of Wiedemann, and sometimes with the wife of Du Bois-Reymond. The latest of this series (which has been hitherto chiefly confined to the works of Tyndall) is the book on the most recent views concerning electricity by Prof. Oliver Lodge, which was regarded by Von Helmholtz himself as a particularly admirable introduction to the subject.

Every upholder of the ancient order of things must be shocked at seeing the frequency with which the names of women appear as the authors of contributions in the learned periodicals, and especially the names of American women in the German scientific periodicals; this indicates a lack of modest retiringness on the part of American women which cannot but be viewed with alarm in some quarters. Thus, the last number of Roux's *Archiv für Entwickelungsmechanik der Organismen* (a subject which even did not exist a few years ago) has eight names of contributors on the title-page, four of them Americans, and two of them American women. Nor is this a solitary showing; to mention one more instance which lies at hand, more than half of the 260 pages of the last number of the *Journal of Morphology* are contributed by women.

Harper's Round Table for 1898 (aside from the standing departments, in which Photography has a large place) is composed mainly of fiction and tales of adventure. Echoes of the Spanish war are noticeably wanting. Two articles relate to Cuba, and there is a story of Dewey's mischievousness and strategy as a schoolboy. This reticence when the air was full of the great international controversy will not be laid up against the magazine. Some of Mr. G. W. Carryl's clever animal fables in verse are found here.

A few contributors and many features are common to the *American Annual of Photography* (Scovill & Adams Co.) and the *International Annual* of E. & H. T. Anthony & Co., and both plump volumes can be consulted with profit by professional and amateur. The range of illustration in the former excels, on the whole, and here alone we find examples of color printing, while Mr. F. H. Day's figure and Dr. Shufeldt's animal studies are worthy of special remark. The *International Annual* displays a series of convention prize photographs.

The third number of the second volume of *Camera Notes* (New York: The Camera Club, No. 3 West Twenty-ninth Street) contains, as usual, several admirable examples of the photographic art; the first being an English landscape, with sheep, by Tom Bright, and "A Wet Night, Columbus Circle, New York," by W. A. Fraser. The first volume of this quarterly periodical already commands a premium.

"Photography '98" is one of the rubrics in 'Hazell's Annual for 1899' (London), and is a good example of the survey which this very useful work gives all along the line of human activity. We notice in it mention of Mr. Birt Acres's new and simplified attachment for the ordinary camera for the making by anybody of cinematograph films; also, of the depositing by the National Photographic Record and Survey Association of several hundreds of excellent historical photographs in the British Museum. This article is cheek by jowl with one on the Philippine Islands. Under Cuba there is a succinct account of our late war; and generally the turbulent year the world over is well recorded. Maps of China, the Nile Valley, West Africa, and the Transvaal will, no doubt, as the editor says, continue for some time to have a current interest. Students of English political development will be glad of the concentrated information under "Local Government."

We have received the pamphlet recording the history of the Lovejoy monument erected a year ago at Alton, Ill., and the proceedings at its dedication. The silhouette portrait of the martyr by which alone his personal appearance has been handed down, is reproduced as frontispiece, and this will give the pamphlet a special value. There is also inserted an embossed picture of the monument. The speakers were not particularly felicitous or well-informed—certainly not the one who gave to Lovejoy the credit of being the first to publish an anti-slavery paper in a slave State. Nor did the colored clergyman who circumspectly read his remarks rise to his opportunity. The somewhat defensive tone of his peroration one may dimly connect with the contemporaneous efforts of the Alton School Board to prevent colored children from attending white schools even when named for Lincoln and Lovejoy! Finally, whoever composed the inscriptions on the base of the Lovejoy column missed one of burning appropriateness: "Wherefore ye witness to yourselves that ye are sons of them that slew the prophets."

Two sheet calendars for 1899 from the Pacific Coast (San Francisco: A. M. Robertson) compare favorably with their class at the East. One is "The Boys of '98," by Gordon Ploss, six wash-drawings of army scenes, with a sentinel cover; in the other, "Stanford," Blanche Letcher celebrates her sex as loyal student, basketball player, graduate, and tourist, in seven clever pen sketches.

It is reported from Munich that a number of American art students, especially women, who have heretofore pursued their studies at Paris, have joined the classes of Munich teachers. At the same time, a French critic, M. S. Rocheblave, discussing the rapid development of German art in the last decade (in the *Revue Pédagogique* for November), deems it probable that modern German painting may soon rival the French.

—The increasing frequency with which the opinions of Friedrich Nietzsche are quoted in this country is perhaps another symptom that, as a nation, we are in an abnormal mental condition. The recklessness with which we were stampeded into the war with Spain, the flippancy with which we now renounce the fundamental principles of the republic, the devil-may-care levity with which we adopt the policy of imperialism—all smacks of the insane psychological state which characterizes Nietzsche's works. The time seems almost ripe for a Nietzsche fad here. Until Nordau castigated the poor madman in 'Degeneration' four or five years ago, few Americans had ever heard of him; now his works are being translated into English in ten volumes, and books about him are multiplying. It is a pleasure, therefore, to call attention to the admirable exposition of Nietzsche's philosophy which Prof. C. C. Everett of Harvard gives in the *New World* for December. The summary is clear, comprehensive, and complete, and is likely to convince most sober readers that Nietzsche is not for them. "Man," he says, "should be educated for war; woman should be educated for man's recreation." Christianity, he teaches, is a religion formulated by an enslaved and abject race, who naturally magnified the virtues which restrain the strong from persecuting the weak. That doctrines like these, to the bulk of ten volumes, should find acceptance might seem incredible. Prof. Everett suggests, however, some good reasons for this apparent anomaly. His own analysis of the way in which our Government during the Spanish war really acted according to Nietzsche's doctrines, while pretending to be wholly Christian and humane, explains much. It is suggestive that the hopelessly insane Nietzsche is the favorite philosopher of latter-day Germany, while a neurotic if not unbalanced war-lord holds the life of every German at his caprice.

—Prof. Eastman's 'Second Washington Catalogue of Stars' has just been issued in a separate form as an appendix to the Washington Observations for 1892. Astronomers will be glad to get it; but throughout the country they are wondering when they are to be permitted to see the volume itself for that year, let alone the volumes for subsequent years. As a matter of fact, the volume for 1890 is the last published; in comparison with which we naturally note that similar Greenwich publications for 1895 were distributed in this country many months ago. Congress has appropriated generously for this new Observatory for the Navy, nearly a million dollars in all; and there is besides an annual budget for maintenance that should be ample. Not strange is it, therefore, with work lamentably in arrear, that criticism of the Observatory management should again revive, and that last summer's congress of astronomers, thinking the Observatory a discredit to the nation, appointed a committee to inquire into the feasibility of reorganizing its affairs. Prof. Harkness, since 1894 "Astronomical Director," so called, in distinction from the naval "Superintendent" proper, disclaims all responsibility for the catalogue, declaring Prof. Eastman its responsible author, and very properly, although he did not do all the work. The catalogue contains 5,151 stars, based upon more than 75,000 observations, of which 12,000 were made by Assistant Astronomer Skinner, 9,000 each by Assistant Astronomers Winlock and Paul, and 18,000 by Prof. Eastman personally. A considerable force of computers also assisted. The period of observation embraces twenty-five years, from 1866 to 1891. Taking exception to details and scrutinizing the catalogue for errors is beyond our province, and we leave all that to the experts, who will naturally inquire whether the methods of observation and reduction, prosecuted in the old-fashioned way, are abreast with modern standards of precision. As a matter of ty-

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pography, we note that the stars of the American Ephemeris are very insufficiently differentiated by the type-face, which should have been much heavier. The catalogue is a monumental work; and it seems as if the Observatory, upon reorganization, with sundry changes of staff and transfer perhaps to another department of the Government, ought to escape the complete paralysis long threatening it.

—Good as was the idea underlying Dr. St. George Mivart's 'Groundwork of Science' (Putnams), viz., that a new series of books on scientific topics should be equipped with a simple account of the general principles and methods used in the construction of a science, he can scarcely be congratulated on having carried it into successful execution. He calls his work a study of epistemology, but its very miscellaneous contents (the most readable part of which consists of *obiter dicta* suggested by his biological studies) bear hardly any resemblance to what students are beginning to know as epistemology. There is, moreover, no very apparent plan either in the choice or in the order of the topics, while the tantalizing elusiveness of the phrasing may be gauged by one of Dr. Mivart's concluding paragraphs. In answer to the question, What is the groundwork of science? he says (p. 320): "It is the work of self-conscious, material organisms, making use of the marvellous intellectual first principles which they possess, in exploring all the physical and psychical phenomena of the universe which sense, intuition, and ratiocination can anyhow reveal to them as real existences. . . . . Such being the groundwork of science, what may, nay, what must, be said to be its foundation—what the support and guarantee alike of the workers, the principles, and the objects of science?" The answer to this second conundrum the reader has some difficulty in discovering to be "God," but what could be more awkward than the distinction drawn between the "groundwork" and the "foundation" of science? As for the groundwork of science itself, it is enough to say that it consists, according to Dr. Mivart, of realist metaphysics of a very antiquated type, hardly differing from the scholastic doctrine which still clings to the Roman Catholic Church. His appreciation of idealism is so imperfect that he seriously (p. 81) endorses Dr. Johnson's refutation of it by kicking a stone! If this be refutation, it might at least be strengthened by kicking the idealist! In short, Dr. Mivart's reaction against the popular doctrine that science involves no metaphysics, takes the form of untimely zeal on behalf of a particular kind of metaphysics; and he thereby loses a great opportunity of illustrating the truth that sciences are systems of working—methods which hand on the problem of their combination and mutual adjustment to metaphysics.

—The contributors to volume vi. of Prof. Petit de Julleville's 'Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française' (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.), unite in dealing somewhat harshly with the "Encyclopédistes," one and all, of the eighteenth century. This treatment contrasts unacceptably with the unction shown in reviewing the divines and preachers in earlier issues of the work, and indicates a slight falling away from the critical attitude. We note, also, that the chapter on Voltaire omits all mention of Parton's Life. Jean Jacques's defects of character and sophisms in doctrine are much more tenderly handled by M. Maury. As to Bernardin de Saint Pierre, while the charm that still clings to his one famous romance is admitted, we feel surprise at finding the flimsy teleology of his 'Harmonies' solemnly set forth and as solemnly refuted. The writers who deal with the creative and imaginative literature of the period (dramas, novels, and poems) succeed completely in demonstrating the transitional character of most of these productions; but, in so doing, also obscure their inherently permanent value, for, after all, 'Gil Blas' is still readable, and "Figaro" worthily treads the stage. Much the most interesting chapters in the volume are contributed by M. Joseph Texte and M. Samuel Rocheblave. The former, already known by his recent studies in European literature, devotes his space to the cosmopolitan influence of literary France during the century, and supports his positions with illustrations reaching from Madrid to St. Petersburg. M. Rocheblave continues his examination of the moral and intellectual forces that tended, particularly during the latter half of the eighteenth century, towards paralyzing the kindred efforts of letters and of the graphic arts by pseudo-classical restrictions, the breaking down of which will doubtless be amply discussed in the next issue of this great work.

A NEW BIBLE DICTIONARY.

A Dictionary of the Bible, dealing with its Language, Literature, and Contents, including the Biblical Theology. Edited by James Hastings, M.A., D.D., with the assistance of John A. Selbie, M.A., and, chiefly in the revision of the proofs, of A. B. Davidson, D.D., LL.D., S. R. Driver, D.D., Litt.D., H. B. Swete, D.D., Litt.D. Vol. I.: A—Feasts. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1898. Lexicon 8vo, pp. xv, 864.

The publication of a large and exhaustive Dictionary of the Bible is an event of no little importance. Smith's Dictionary has held undisputed sway for more than a generation, and it is high time that a new work, fully abreast of the advancing Biblical scholarship of the day, should take its place. This is said with no intention of disparaging the merits of the older Dictionary. As a matter of fact, it is a work of a very high order, and to meet, with a new publication, the needs of the present day as adequately as it met the needs of a former generation is no easy task for editor and publisher. But the advance in Biblical knowledge has been very rapid during recent decades, and Smith's Dictionary is unquestionably antiquated. No Biblical student, therefore, could fail to hail with acclamation a work of similar scope and of equal range and thoroughness, which should adequately represent in all lines the best scholarship of to-day. A Dictionary like the present must be judged by a high standard. It is not enough that it should contain some or even many good articles. It must be as nearly as possible abreast of the age at every point. There is no justification for poor and slipshod work or for hack work. Unless it contains the fruits of the best modern Biblical scholarship, it has no right to exist. The question, then is, How does the present work fulfil its promise?

Many admirable features appear to the most casual reader. The editor says in his preface: "Every effort has been used to make the information it contains reasonably full, trustworthy, and accessible." So far as fulness is concerned, the work leaves nothing to be desired. Not only are there some ninety elaborate articles in this first volume, dealing with subjects of peculiar importance and difficulty, but there is an immense number of brief articles (more than 3,500, according to the publisher's advertisement), some of them filling only a few lines, others extending to a column or more, and dealing with the greatest variety of subjects. "Articles have been written," according to the preface, "on the names of all Persons and Places, on the Antiquities and Archæology of the Bible, on its Ethnology, Geology, and Natural History, on Biblical Theology and Ethic, and even on the obsolete or archaic words occurring in the English versions."

It is upon the range and quality of its minor articles that the value of a dictionary or encyclopædia depends to a considerable degree. When it comes to subjects of great importance and significance, the student commonly goes beyond the Dictionary to the more elaborate discussions in book and pamphlet form, making the dictionary article only a point of departure. But, for the hundreds of minor matters upon which he wishes information day by day, he contents himself ordinarily with his Bible Dictionary, and it is of cardinal importance, therefore, that it shall be accurate and thoroughly up to date at these points. The temptation in every work of the kind is to expend strength solely upon the great subjects, and allow the minor articles to be done in a less careful and thorough way, or even to have them thrown together by members of the editorial staff who have only the most general knowledge of the subjects with which they deal. The present Dictionary is to be warmly commended for the evident care which has been given even to the least important articles, and for the fact that the briefest of them have commonly been put into the hands of experts.

So, too, in the matter of accessibility, the work is admirably adapted to the end in view. The editor says:

"While all the articles have been written expressly for this work, so they have been arranged under the headings one would most naturally turn to. In a very few cases it has been found necessary to group allied subjects together. But even then the careful system of blacklettering and cross-reference adopted should enable the reader to find the subject wanted without delay."

Moreover, the convenience of the student has been consulted by occasional repetition which usually makes it unnecessary for him to go back and forth from one article to another in search of information upon any particular subject. This is all as it should be, and calls for the gratitude of every one who uses the Dictionary.

But, after all, the value of a work like the present depends less upon its fulness, and the accessibility of the information it contains, than upon its trustworthiness. Upon this point the editor says: "The names of the authors are appended to their articles, except where the article is very brief and of minor importance; and these names are the best guarantee that the work may be relied on." The unsigned articles, in fact, never extend beyond two or three lines in length, and some even as brief as that are signed. The practice of signing practically all the articles and of giving the author's names in full instead of only

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their initials, is to be heartily commended. The unsophisticated student is very apt to ascribe greater authority to a Dictionary article than it really possesses, to regard it with a reverence inspired by the imposing list of scholars who have coöperated in the production of the work, forgetting that each article is the production of an individual scholar, and commonly of no greater authority than the same scholar's utterances in other forms. To give in each case the author's full name is to do something to dispel this illusion and to promote the student's own independence—an independence which is more seriously threatened by the Dictionary than by any other form of publication.

But, after saying that "these names are the best guarantee that the work may be relied on," the editor continues: "So far as could be ascertained, those authors were chosen for the various subjects who had made a special study of that subject, and might be able to speak with authority upon it." Naturally we turn at once to the list of contributors to the first volume to see who these writers are. The list is an imposing one, containing 135 names, many of them well and favorably known in all Biblical circles. Among them are such men as Profs. Francis Brown of Union Seminary, Beecher of Auburn, Curtis and Porter of Yale, Thayer of Harvard, Charles, Conybeare, and Driver of Oxford, Harris, James, and Robinson of Cambridge, Davidson of Edinburgh, Ramsay and Salmond of Aberdeen, and George Adam Smith of Glasgow. But a more careful examination of the list reveals one or two curious and somewhat disquieting facts—in the first place, the almost total absence from the list of the names of German scholars. As a matter of fact, only one German name appears—that of Prof. Hommel of Munich. It was not to be expected, of course, that a Bible Dictionary for English-speaking students, edited by an Englishman, should enlist the services of any large number of German scholars, but it is hardly a favorable sign that they have been so rigidly excluded, and that the single one whose name appears is known as a reactionary of an extreme type, who is probably the least representative man in his department in all Germany. We can hardly help thinking that he was chosen largely because of his theological tendency, and that German scholars in general were avoided (in part at least) because of their reputation for radicalism. It is well enough for the editor and publisher, if they choose, to issue a work which shall represent exclusively or chiefly the Biblical scholarship of Great Britain; but what the student of today needs is a dictionary which shall contain the fruits of the best Biblical scholarship of the world, and just in so far as the present work fails to supply that need, it falls short of the true ideal of a Bible Dictionary. English scholarship is in some respects exceedingly provincial, and it is a great pity that a work claiming to be a thoroughly up-to-date and high-grade dictionary should emphasize that provincialism in so marked a way.

The impression of provincial narrowness gathered from the almost total absence of German names is confirmed by a still farther scrutiny of the list of contributors. No other Continental country has a single representative, while America (where the Dictionary, of course, is expected to sell widely) has only fifteen out of a total of 135. This does not necessarily reflect upon the editor, for he may have tried and failed to secure a wider coöperation, but it does seriously impair the value of the work.

Equally noticeable with the unfortunate provincialism of the Dictionary is the marked theological tendency of at least certain portions of it. It is true that in the articles dealing with Old Testament introduction there is a large measure of freedom, but elsewhere extreme conservatism is the rule. This is symptomatic of the condition of things in England. In Old Testament critical scholarship Great Britain is perhaps abreast of the age, and the best articles in the present Dictionary are those dealing with the Old Testament. But in New Testament scholarship both England and Scotland are far behind the rest of the world. There are few New Testament students in Great Britain who are doing work of any substantial value except in the field of textual criticism, and the editor, in failing to enlist the support of the leading New Testament students of other lands, has not availed himself of the fruits of the best scholarship of the day, and so his Dictionary is noticeably inadequate in this part. The disparity is indicated by the very difference in the number of the contributors upon Old and New Testament subjects respectively. Of professional Old Testament scholars there are at least thirty-five, of professional New Testament scholars, so far as appears on the face of the published list, there are only five—though it should be said that some of those whose titles do not indicate the fact are to be classed among New Testament specialists. But even so the disparity is very marked. Moreover, the large proportion of systematic theologians is a bad sign. There are at least fifteen professional dogmaticians, to whom a large proportion of the articles in Biblical Theology has been given, as if their work as systematic theologians especially fitted them for the latter subject. The editor and publisher lay stress upon the treatment of Biblical Theology as constituting a very important feature of the work, and some of the articles are of a very high order, as, for instance, that on Eschatology, especially in the sections dealing with the Old Testament and the Apocrypha by Davidson and Charles respectively. But the fact that so many of these articles have been written by systematic theologians, whose tastes and habits lead to a systematic rather than an historical treatment of their themes, has completely vitiated not a few of them. Perhaps the most flagrant example of this is the article on Christology, by Prof. Beet. The writer betrays no sense of historical development, and what must we think of such a paragraph as the following?

"We expect to see in them [*i. e.*, those who deny the divinity of Christ], as a fruit of their important discovery, some moral and spiritual superiority to those who are still held fast by the great delusion. We look in vain. They who deny the divinity of Christ have done very little to carry the Gospel to the heathen, to rescue the perishing at home, or to help forward the spiritual life of men."

Surely a dictionary can hardly claim to have been carefully edited in which so unscientific an article—a homily we might better call it—was allowed to appear. Or are we to suppose that it satisfied the editors? We are sure that such an article on an Old Testament theme would not have satisfied the Old Testament specialists on the board of editors. But the standard set for the New Testament is so much lower, and the defence of certain great doctrines counts for so much, among the New Testament scholars of England! The articles on Conscience, on Election, on Ethics, and on Faith are also examples of the unhistorical and therefore unscientific method of treating Biblical theology, though all of them, especially the last two, are full and careful and contain much valuable material.

We have referred to the high grade of the articles on the Old Testament. Some of the most notable among them are those on Chronicles by Prof. Francis Brown, on Daniel by Prof. Curtis of Yale, on Deuteronomy by Prof. Ryle, and on Ecclesiastes by Prof. Peake. All of these articles are thorough and exhaustive, and their authors accept without hesitation the conclusions of the modern critical school. The value of Chronicles is recognized as more that "of a sermon than of a history." The book of Daniel is ascribed to the Maccabeean period, about the year 165; Ecclesiastes to about the year 200, and Deuteronomy to the seventh century B. C. Other articles of especial interest in the Old Testament field are those on Angels, on the Apocrypha (which contains the best account of the history of the Apocrypha in the church with which we are acquainted), on the Exodus, and on the Fall.

The articles dealing with the New Testament are, as a rule, distinctly inferior to these and others in the Old Testament field. The article on Chronology by Turner of Oxford is, to be sure, of a high order of excellence, and it is interesting to see that the author, after a very elaborate discussion of the available data, settles down upon a chronology of Paul's life out of agreement with all the chronologies hitherto proposed. The articles on Corinthians, by Principal Robertson, are also able, and on the whole satisfactory except for the treatment of the interval between I. and II. Corinthians. But the article on Acts by Headlam is a flagrant example of what a dictionary article should not be. It is an apology almost from beginning to end. As a single illustration of the author's spirit and method, attention may be called to the fact that, in considering the chief discrepancies between the Acts and the Epistles of Paul, he never so much as refers to the decree of Acts xv., though he deals with the relations of that chapter to Galatians ii. 1-10, and triumphantly declares all the difficulties disposed of.

The articles on Colossians and Ephesians are also unsatisfactory, the former especially so. One unfortunate feature of all the articles on Paul's Epistles is the very elaborate analyses that are given, ostensibly with the purpose of promoting an understanding of the Epistles. In reality such minute analyses, which are found in almost all dictionaries and commentaries, create an entirely false impression of the character of Paul's letters, and make a just appreciation of their purpose and meaning almost impossible. The articles on church government, especially on apostles and on bishops and deacons, are exceedingly meagre, and betray a singular ignorance of the points of chief importance and of those over which there is real dispute. They are supplemented, it is true, by the article on the Church, an admirably thorough and careful piece of work, but they contain no reference to that article and are calculated to mislead the student.

Our space will not permit us to particular-

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ize farther, but we may say in conclusion that the work is on the whole a great advance upon the dictionaries of the past—Smith's as well as others—and deserves a hearty welcome from all Biblical students. At the same time the limitations which beset especially the New Testament articles and those upon Biblical theology must be recognized as seriously impairing the value of the work; and this is the more to be deplored because its very freedom in other parts seems to guarantee its scientific character, and thus gives weight to all its articles. It is cause for lasting regret that a work so good in many respects should in other respects fall so far short of the ideal of a modern Bible Dictionary.

FRAZER'S PAUSANIAS—II.

Pausanias's Description of Greece. Translated with a Commentary by J. G. Frazer, M.A., LL.D., Glasgow; Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge; of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law. Macmillans. 1898.

An attempt must now be made to select specific points from the mass of Mr. Frazer's accumulations of well-digested learning in order to give some detailed indication of the scope of his work. Let us begin with several debatable matters of Athenian topography where the dust of controversies has hitherto darkened counsel: (1.) The meaning of "Ceramicus," says Mr. Frazer in substance (vols. ii., p. 56; v., 479), is restricted by Pausanias and several late writers to the market-place; but this limitation of the term was unknown in the fourth and fifth centuries B. C. (2.) The "so-called" Theseum was not a Temple of Theseus; it may have been a Temple of Hephæstus; but no conclusive proof of this is as yet forthcoming (vols. ii., 127, 145-155, and v., 489 ff). (3.) On the whole, the position at Athens of the market-place may be regarded as settled, but we ought not to allow it vaguely to include portions of the adjacent hills (vol. ii., p. 55). (4.) In the discussion about the location of the "Nine-Conduits" spring, Dr. Dörpfeld must be right as to the position of the spring to which Pausanias applies this name; he is, however, plainly wrong in his attempt to wrest the references of other writers into agreement with Pausanias's location; most probably Pausanias made a blunder in his use of the name Enneakrounos (vols. ii., 112-117, and v., 483 ff.).

Mr. Frazer's notes upon the Attic countryside make up in more ways than one for the unpoetical and Baedeker-like precisions of Pausanias, who was out of touch with all the Greek poets excepting only Homer (vol. i., Introduction, p. lv.), and actually finds nothing better to say, when dealing with Colonos, than that the local Oedipus legend is an imposture (vols. i., Introduction, lx. and pp. 42, 47, and ii., 366 f.). These ultra-professional asperities are most acceptably humanized by our commentator, who does not scorn either the enthusiasm of Sophocles (vol. ii., 395 ff.) or the intensities of Euripides (vol. v., 2), and has been at pains to borrow light from the newly resuscitated Bacchylides (v., 490 f.). The legends clinging round Cape Zoster gather an enhancement of grace from our commentator's clear picture of its coasts (vol. ii., p. 399); and the romantic background given by his description to the tomb of Erysichthon at Prasiae (Ib., 403), and also to the Temples at Rhamnus (Ib., 448-457), serves to put the reader's mind in tune with what he is trying to understand. Similarly, the nightingales of Oropus, the ivy of Acharnæ (Ib., 417), and the grottoes of Pentelicus (Ib., 419), Cephale (Ib., 402), and Phyle (Ib., 422), all help to make the rigors of Pausanias, when thus tempered and attenuated, not bearable merely, but fascinating. These and such as these are the blandishments by which we are won—now with a landscape and anon with a brief sketch of Attic peasants at their work—so that at last we learn ourselves to feel something of our commentator's anxiety as to the precise location of many an Attic township whose name we never read before. Mr. Frazer's discourse upon the seaward group of country-towns known as the Marathonian Tetrapolis (Ib., 431-442), is a case in point. We can only wish he might have seen his way to give us the companion picture of the adjacent group of three highland townships, known as the Epacrian Demes, which were named Plotheia, Semachidae, and Icaria (on Icaria, see Ib., 461 ff.). Such a sketch would have been particularly interesting to several past members of the American School at Athens, who were concerned in the attempt to locate the two first named of these three ancient hamlets.

Although Mr. Frazer appears to be in a captious mood when he derides an American reporter of Greek excavations at Thoricus for speaking of "an entire city" when he should apparently have said "a small Mycenæan settlement" (vol. v., 524), and has apparently not been greatly interested either in the details of American work at Sto Dionyso under the late Professor Merriam (vol. ii., 462), or in the most recent American discoveries at Corinth (vol. v., 545), he gives us full measure elsewhere, notably at Sicyon (vol. iii., 44 ff., 49-51), at Platæa (vol. v., 12 f., 18), at Thoricus (vol. ii., 409 f.), and at the Argive Heræum (vol. iii., 165-186). Still, his account of the Heræum could not, in the nature of things, be the centre of interest in the third volume. The place of honor and the largest space belongs to Mycenæ. Nowhere, in fact, has the vast literature of Mycenæan excavation been so effectively and serviceably condensed as in the 65-odd pages of his note on Pausanias ii., 16 (Ib., 98-164). Commenting, in the same volume (iii.), on Pausanias iii., 18, our author deals exhaustively with the Amyclæan throne of Apollo without apparently quite being sure of his own mind; for he provisionally accepts Professor Furtwängler's restoration on page 352, while he appears to adopt, on page 356, a radical alteration of it. The leading features in the Commentary on Pausanias iv. (Messenia) are the excellent accounts given of Messene and Ithome (vol. iii., 429-439) and of Sphacteria-Pylos (Ib., 456-462; v., 608-613).

When we come to the two books devoted to Elis, and to Mr. Frazer's summary of the excavations at Olympia, a disappointment is in store for us. Here we are surprised to find that our author, whose interest and competence in matters of primitive ritual are well known, gives (vol. iii., 562 ff., 556) only the most casual glances at the vast collection of votive bronzes deriving from a prehistoric ritual at Olympia, and shows few indications (vol. iii., 559 f., 561) of having read and digested Curtius's extraordinarily able account of the Olympian altar-service so minutely dwelt upon in Pausanias v., 15. Our commentator exhibits (vol. iv., 62 *init.*, 63 *ad fin.*, 65, half a line, 66 *ad fin.*) a like indifference to the detailed account of Greek polychromy as exemplified by the remains of the Olympian treasure-houses. The light thrown upon this dark subject by the German publications on Olympia is so remarkable that it absolutely cries out for a long note or an appendix. Even the landscape of Olympia leaves Mr. Frazer cold, and his whole account of the site is given without enthusiasm. In spite of this fact, we must allow that the account is good upon all the most essential matters involved. Good it assuredly is, but not up to Mr. Frazer's mark elsewhere. Some careful study of the prehistoric bronzes at Olympia would certainly have been far more fruitful, for instance, than the sort of note given on Pausanias v., 14 (vol. iii., 558 f.). The topic is "Zeus the Averter of flies," and Mr. Frazer, after Arcadian, Leucadian, Philistine, and a swarm of other more or less relevant parallels, finds it worth while to say: "We may conjecture that in these and similar cases the God or Hero who is implored to keep off insects or vermin, was originally conceived as himself a fly or locust or worm, etc." After this comes a divagation into the jungle of "totemism." The relevancy of this whole note remains doubtful so long as Mr. Frazer fails to subject the abounding evidences of prehistoric cultus at Olympia to any systematic scrutiny. It is therefore safe to be sceptical as to the hoary antiquity of Olympian observance in honor of Zeus "the Averter of flies," and to regard the frigid minutiæ of Pausanias on this, as on many similar matters which are taken seriously by our commentator, as the exuberances of an outworn and paralyzed religious impulse which reproduces a simulacrum of the sturdier play of primeval thought, but is anything rather than primitive itself, since it marks the second childhood of the religious mind of antiquity. If our commentator would insist less exclusively upon survival (which, of course, must in some sense be taken into account), and allow us to put this interpretation on his parallels, then his savage parallels would have their real value. Indeed, Mr. Frazer himself shows us the right way in his note on Pausanias viii., 48, where he argues for Jahn's view that a substantial portion of the story of Telephus is of very late origin (ii., 75 ff.; v. 481).

The fact is, that we are just beginning to gain some insight into the religion of the Mycenæans, which unquestionably lies at the roots of the higher and more characteristic Hellenic observance, and new discoveries in this field are more than suggesting a fundamental reconstitution of the now current views as to the survival in Greek religion of savage ritual. The facts presented in Mr. Frazer's 'Golden Bough,' to which a vast addition is made in these commentaries, will for the most part have soon to be dismissed from the place of honor assigned to them in the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' So far at least as Greek religion is concerned, and most especially so far as Athenian and Attic cults are involved, their place henceforth is in the background of a long perspective, the foreground being assigned to the dimly recorded beginnings of Hellenic religion, and the middle distance being reserved for what we may be able to make out concerning the evolution of that more highly organized civilization and by no means primitive religion to which Mycenæ has given its name. Indeed, these very commentaries do their part in persuading us of the unforeseen and decisive influence upon

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the Hellenes of their Mycenæan predecessors, for, in his account of the draining of Lake Copais (v., 110-120), Mr. Frazer incidentally describes a vast system of prehistoric engineering works by which those regions were protected from periodic inundation. This achievement is connected with that old Bœotian centre of Mycenæan power, Orchomenos, whose palmy days were anterior to the glories of Mycenæ in the Argolid.

Speaking generally, Mr. Frazer is most successful in dealing with architectural and topographical questions, and not quite at his best when he discourses about painting and sculpture. He does not appear quite so dissatisfied as the facts should make him with the state of our knowledge about the Delphian frescoes of Polygnotus, for instance, and is just a little too much under the spell of Dr. Carl Robert's restorations (v., 358 top) —indispensable, no doubt, and excellent so far as they go. Perhaps it is not unfair to say that this results from a limitation in his taste, analogous to that which leaves him unmoved by the great composition in stone which adorned the western gable of the temple of Zeus at Olympia, and leads him to dismiss with something akin to distrust the battle of the Centaurs on the frieze of the temple at Bassæ (iv., 400). To say, as Mr. Frazer does, that Dr. Robert's restorations "on the whole" "probably give a fairly correct idea of the composition and general effect of the pictures," though "some exceptions may be taken to them in detail," is like saying of a row of isolated flash-pictures for the cinematograph, when pasted together side by side, that they probably give a fairly correct idea on the whole of the movements whose invisible stages they project upon the astonished and offended eye. Surely we know enough to be certain that the art of composition made vast strides between the age which produced the François Vase and the Chest of Cypselus, and the era of Polygnotus. Accordingly, we have but to compare with Robert's restorations (v., plates vi. and vii.) Mr. Stuart Jones's astounding *tour de force* on the restoration of the Chest of Cypselus (iii., plate x.) in order to realize how utterly this advance in composition has eluded the restorer of Polygnotus's Delphian frescoes. This could hardly have escaped detection by one who was sensitive to the merits as a great composition of the western pediment at Olympia. Mr. Frazer's limitation of taste in this regard reasserts itself in the impatience with which he alludes to conflicting and perhaps not very fortunate attempts to make out a scheme of the composition of the eastern pediment of the Parthenon: "The field of conjecture is boundless," says he, "and archæologists have accordingly expatiated in it" (ii., 310).

But further cavils, in this review, would be out of proportion, and might convey a totally false impression of the uniformly excellent quality of this truly monumental work. Its very freedom from misprints (in volume iii. of 652 pages there are only three obvious ones: p. 323, l. 6 from the bottom; p. 289, l. 7 from the top, and p. 548, l. 17 from the bottom), is phenomenal. In all departments of Greek archæology our author's survey is of the widest, except in Byzantine studies, which are only very incidentally involved, as in the account of Daphne, where Mr. Frazer does not distinguish himself (ii. 496); and his judgment is marvellously unbiassed. The crucial test of his open-mindedness is no doubt his treatment of the perplexed controversy about the raised stage in the Greek theatre. When he first reaches this rock of offence (ii., 222-227), he is clear but guarded, and non-committal. At Epidaurus (iii., 251-255) he has made up his own mind in favor of a raised stage and against Dr. Dörpfeld's view, but he still awaits the appearance of Dr. Dörpfeld's book; and meanwhile, in treating of the theatre at Megalopolis (iv., 330-348), he returns to a non-committal attitude. Finally, in his Addenda, (v., 581-584), he takes advantage of the appearance of Dr. Dörpfeld's book to express his complete dissent from him as to the stage, and gives his reasons in a manner which must command the respect, even if it does not secure the adhesion, of all fair-minded readers.

One final question springs unbidden to our lips when we note that Mr. Frazer's record tells of something new under the sun. Americans have worked for nearly twenty years side by side with Germans, French, and English of the other national schools at Athens. The scientific nature of the ends pursued in common has operated to discourage petty national jealousies, and there has been a manifest union of hearts from which the modern Greeks would be the last to be excluded, since their generous zeal and enthusiastic hospitality confront us on every page of Mr. Frazer's record. Guizot has aptly called the Crusades the first European event. Our question is, By what parallel designation shall we qualify these our latter-day crusades for deliverance of the holy places where, till lately, were entombed some of the most splendid monuments of the glory and greatness of man's mind?

STILLMAN'S UNION OF ITALY.

The Union of Italy, 1815-1895. By W. J. Stillman. Cambridge Historical Series. Cambridge (England): University Press. 1898.

The number of short histories of the unification of Italy increases year by year, but not more rapidly than the surpassing interest of the subject warrants. The dramatic incidents—the strong and mutually contradictory characters of Cavour, Garibaldi, Mazzini, and Victor Emanuel, that quadrilateral on which the regeneration of Italy was founded—and the difficulty of telling the complex story, will long allure historians. If we count Miss Godkin's and Mr. Edward Dicey's biographies of Victor Emanuel, Mr. Stillman's is the fifth one-volume work in English on this period. Probyn's, the earliest, is an honest, unpretentious summary, which gives the main lines of action, but makes no attempt to explore or interpret motives. Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco's 'Liberation of Italy' excels in anecdote and in personal details, and it is, first of all, what every book should be, readable. Mr. Stillman's manual differs from both of these, and still has certain characteristics which are sure to win for it attentive consideration.

In the first place, he brings his story down to the present day, whereas the Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco and Probyn close with the death of Victor Emanuel in 1878. (In a later edition Capt. Probyn cursorily reviews Italian politics from 1878 to 1892.) In the second place, Mr. Stillman writes as an eyewitness of, if not as an active participator in, the events of the last forty years. Thirdly, his position latterly as Roman correspondent of the London *Times*, and his well-known intimacy with Signor Crispi, give his opinions an importance which cannot be gainsaid. Mr. Stillman's attitude towards Crispi is not that of the servile disciple, but of the political critic who, in his own belief, has carefully examined various policies, and has discarded all but one. We need not inquire when and by what arguments he became a Crispian—very probably he sided with this party long before Crispi assumed its leadership; the vital fact is, that he is in the position to state, authoritatively, for the first time in English, how Crispi and his followers would have us understand modern Italian history. Only Crispi's autobiography, which will probably not be published in his lifetime, can exceed, therefore, the importance of Mr. Stillman's manual as the representative utterance of the Crispians. Mr. Stillman frankly admits, in his preface, "how difficult it is for one who has lived in the midst of the events he describes and in personal relations with the actors, to keep a perfectly unbiassed mind"; but he trusts "that his personal experience of Italian life and the intimate and often confidential relations in which he has lived with some of the best and wisest of Italian public men, may confer on his work some compensating qualities which nothing else would have given it." Only a testy reader will deny that this is the case. The personal equation is precisely that which gives the book its importance.

Passing over the record of the first generation of Italy's struggle for independence, in which we note that Mr. Stillman judges Charles Albert harshly, we find that about 1860, when his acquaintance with Italy began, and when Crispi, as political manager of Garibaldi's Sicilian expedition, first attained prominence outside of his Republican sect, Mr. Stillman's narrative bears more and more the stamp of personal experience and reminiscence. Henceforth, distrust, if not hatred, of France becomes the cardinal doctrine of his school; and nowhere do we recall seeing the apparent reasonableness of this position put more logically than here. Other historians of Italy have regarded Austria and the Papacy as the two great opponents of national unity and independence in the nineteenth century. Mr. Stillman seems to believe, however, that it would have been better for Italy not to have got Napoleon Third's aid in 1859, because, although she thereby immediately freed Lombardy from Austria, she was forced to cede Savoy and Nice, and fell into a sort of chronic subservience to France. As early as 1849 the French showed their real animus towards Italy by sending Oudinot's army to crush the Roman Republic and restore Pius IX.; later symptoms of this animus are discernible in their preventing the Italian fleet from capturing Gaeta, 1859-60; in maintaining their garrison in Rome, except for a brief interval, until the summer of 1870; in outwitting the Italians in the North African competition, which ended with the establishment of the French protectorate over Tunis; in constant underhand machinations with the Vatican, by which the Italian Government has been embarrassed in its foreign affairs, and the Church has been able to sow discord against the State; in the secret abetting, with the connivance of Russia, of the Abyssinian resistance to Italian colonization. This is but an abstract of the bill of grievances which the Crispians have drawn up against France. Far less than this, Mr. Stillman thinks, would justify Italy's participation in the

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Triple Alliance, an act by which she retaliated as best she could against Gallic insolence. To one holding this view, it is natural that Sig. Crispi, whose policy has been as consistently anti-French as that of Blaine and his followers here was anti-English, should personify the soundest Italian statesmanship of the time. The present reviewer has still to be convinced that the Triple Alliance has benefited Italy, but as he is bent on calling attention to Mr. Stillman's conclusions, and not on controverting them, he need not discuss these main lines further.

He cannot forbear, however, from asserting that Mr. Stillman, who usually treats Cavour fairly enough, errs when he implies that the Italians inherited from Cavour their much-deplored subservience to France. Cavour did, indeed, use France most effectively in 1859, but this did not prevent him, a few months later, from defying Napoleon III. Cavour was the greatest, because the most successful, of opportunists, and to imagine that he would cling to a policy which had once been advantageous, but was proved harmful, is not to understand him. He would have abandoned the French and sworn friendship with Hottentots or Patagonians if he had assured himself that they could serve his plans better. Those who came after him and failed where he succeeded, can hardly excuse themselves by throwing the blame on him. Thus Rattazzi, in 1862, connived at Garibaldi's expedition, as Cavour had done in 1860; but the result simply proved again the wide chasm that divides imitative talent from original genius.

In one other respect Mr. Stillman surprises us in his treatment of Cavour. He discovers, what certainly Cavour's bitterest enemies have not hitherto discovered, that Cavour was "a poor judge of men" (pp. 323, 325). The apparent source of this opinion is Cavour's refusal to hand Sicily and Naples over to Crispi in 1860. The mere suggestion that Cavour should have done so, implies a forgetfulness of the fact that Crispi, the monarchical minister of 1895, was not at all the same person as Crispi, the Republican conspirator of 1860. And, after all, in these latter years when Crispi has had almost dictatorial power, he has never shown first-class administrative ability. His chief administrative triumph was in suppressing the Sicilian insurrection five years ago. But then, as Cavour said, "*any one* can govern by a state of siege." And as to whether Cavour was a good judge of men or not, who were the men of his own and of the younger generation whom he especially marked for his confidence? Were they not Lamarmora, Ricasoli, Farini, Boncompagni, Minghetti, Castelli, Nigra, Visconti-Venosta, Lanza, and Sella? He used many others, because they seemed most eligible for the work of the moment, but the above group comprised the real Cavourians; and can anybody name another, superior in ability and integrity, that has or might have ruled Italy since 1861?

We lay stress on these points because there is a tendency among many persons who, like Mr. Stillman, are disappointed at the actual condition of Italy, to belittle the work of Cavour and the men of the heroic period. But this is no more just than to impute to Lincoln all the folly and failure and sins which the party to which he belonged has committed since his death.

We lack space to discuss other questions started by reading Mr. Stillman. His book, it will be seen, is thoroughly alive and almost forces its readers to take sides: that, of course, is the penalty of dealing vigorously with living issues. We note that Mr. Stillman, although he does not mention King Humbert by name, attributes to "Court" influence many of the errors and mishaps in the last twenty years. He also dispels the notion that the remedy for existing conditions is a republic. Of Italy at present we may say, as of Tammany-ruled Greater New York, that the Constitution and laws are good enough, but that the people do not care to have them honestly administered. Mr. Stillman closes by confessing himself a pessimist, but he is too wise to prescribe a republic as a cure.

Several maps and a partial bibliography add to the usefulness of the manual. The proof-reading, as is so often the case in books printed in England and dealing with foreign proper names, leaves much to be desired.

Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns: 1650-51. By W. S. Douglas. London: Elliot Stock. 1898.

Mr. Douglas's reason for writing this long monograph is that Carlyle, Robert Chambers, and Dr. Gardiner have not, separately or together, described "all the essential moves in Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns of 1650-51." Gardiner has considered Cromwell's strategy before the battle of Dunbar, but not even he has entered exhaustively upon Leslie's tactics during the same period; and as for those subsequent operations whereby the Scotch general succeeded for a time in thwarting English effort, he, like other modern authorities, holds his peace. Mr. Douglas approaches this subject with the avowed purpose of treating it in "drum and trumpet style." He does not regard it with an eye to its place in the "national struggle for Protestant 'uniformity' or reunion on a Presbyterian basis." He connects it neither with the last efforts of Scottish independence, nor with the personal fortunes of the Stuarts. All these various considerations are kept in strict subjection to the military questions involved. If "politico-religious movements in court and camp and council-tent" appear in the text at all, it is solely because they affect the course of tactics.

After a few short introductory chapters which give the episode a setting, Mr. Douglas divides the bulk of his narrative into three sections, each of them ending with a contest at arms—Dunbar, Hamilton Fight, and Inverkeithing. There can be no doubt that, viewed in relation to historical values, the first section ranks before the others in point of importance as well as in point of time. The preliminaries (though not in themselves precipitate) are more striking, the issue more delicately poised in the balance, and the event more dramatic. But, on the other hand, the province which Mr. Douglas has claimed for his own extends from the Kirk's defeat at Dunbar to John Lambert's triumph at Inverkeithing. We restrict our notice to this portion of the work, since, while less memorable, it is less familiar, and especially since it is the author's distinctive and individual addition to Cromwellian literature.

The battle of Worcester was fought on September 3, 1651, precisely a year after the battle of Dunbar. Almost equally symmetrical is the chronology of Cromwell's Scotch campaigns from his invasion, July 22, 1650, to the "battell beside Pitreavie," July 20, 1651. The skirmishing previous to Dunbar occupied six weeks, and the next main part of the operations—that closed by Hamilton Fight—extends to December 1. This period witnessed many bickerings among the Scots and many new schemes of policy, proposed in turn by all factions from the ultra-Royalists to the radical Presbyterians (like Strachan and Ker) who favored an accommodation with Cromwell. The conservative Kirk leaders had been shorn of their reputation with the masses by the disaster at Dunbar, and still they clung to the hope that they might "effect the triumph of Presbyterianism over Independency, while keeping the claims of Royalism, which they ostensibly supported, in strict subordination to their own hierarchical pretensions." Although the English held Edinburgh town and were besieging the Castle, Scotch controversial obstinacy was such that no common basis of agreement could be reached. Cromwell received reinforcements from home and marched across the country to Glasgow. National cohesion was not induced even by this masterful act. The "Westland Party" under Strachan was willing to promise that if Cromwell withdrew from Scotland, the English Independents should henceforth be unmolested by their northern neighbors; but he could not offer sound guarantees, and Cromwell required tangible fruit of his success. Through the autumn of 1650, debates and negotiations throve while campaigning languished. At the beginning of winter a change of attitude is observable; the national groups draw together; the Remonstrants are discredited; and, after the engagement at Hamilton Town, Cromwell's Scottish enemies rally for a final effort in Charles II.'s behalf.

More than seven months elapsed between this reunion of discordant elements and Cromwell's departure from Scotland in pursuit of the Stuart king who was trying to win his realm. Mr. Douglas dwells little on the great commander's character, but traces his policy and his military movements with minute pains. He also discovers a minor hero in Cromwell's Titus Labienus, John Lambert. The concluding section of the book gains freedom and animation by its release from the tiresome topic of Presbyterian feuds. The interest centres in Fife, which Cromwell made the scene of war, and, despite a paucity of sharp engagements, the fighting is not without brave incidents; *e. g.*, the defence of Linlithgow, the siege of Hume Castle, and the affair of Larbert Bridge. But above all other frays of the twelvemonth between Dunbar and Worcester looms the English victory at Inverkeithen. Here the skill was Lambert's, the superb devotion that of the Clan Maclean.

"They stood up, though in ever-diminishing numbers, to repeated charges of the English; and . . . the contest only ended when their leader and nineteen-twentieths of the clansmen had given up their lives under the sabres of Lambert's troopers. What has made the occurrence as famous as the courage of the actors in it entitled it to become, is the preservation of a phrase. 'Another for Hector!' [Sir Hector Maclean of Duart] was the cry with which 'no less than eight gentlemen of the name of Maclean' rushed upon their death; and the heroic catchword has passed into a proverb."

Mr. Douglas's notes are extensive and make it possible for the reader to verify his authorities at short intervals. Besides memoirs and letters, which he has used freely, the London newspapers of that day have proved copious sources of information. *Mercurius Politicus*, for instance, is cited at the foot of almost

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every page. By a singular oversight the volume is wholly destitute of maps and plans. Owing to the large amount of topographical detail which is needed for the explanation of military movements, the narrative abounds with unfamiliar references, and the ordinary historical atlas does not supply the means of clearing them up. Otherwise grounds of censure are few. Mr. Douglas's style is sometimes more diffuse and vivacious than is common with writers on tactics, and his habit of quoting French phrases amusingly recalls the ancient alliance between France and Scotland; but his research has been careful, his sense of proportion is just, and by infectious enthusiasm he arouses a degree of interest which the purely technical writer would fail to elicit.

Les Populations Finnoises des Bassins de la Volga et de la Kcma. Par Jean N. Smirnov. Études d'ethnographie historique traduites du russe et revues par Paul Boyer. Première Partie. Paris: Leroux.

We have here a very solid contribution to the ethnology and folk-lore of the Finnish races. To the majority of readers this subject is a *terra incognita*, for the most valuable works upon it have appeared in sealed languages. The Magyars naturally feel a considerable curiosity about the language and customs of their congeners, and Russia counts among her population a great number of Ugro-Finnish tribes—the Finns proper, the Esthonians, the Tcheremissians, Mordvins, Ziranians, etc. In the field of philology the best work done (by Castrén, Ahlqvist, Hunfalvy, Donner, and others) must be sought in the Transactions of Russian and Hungarian learned societies and reviews. It was, therefore, a happy idea of M. Paul Boyer, professor in L'École des Langues Orientales at Paris, to make some of these works accessible to a wider circle of readers. But he has done more than translate on the present occasion from the Transactions of the Society of Archæology, History, and Ethnography in connection with the University of Kazan. He has put into shape and reduced to order a quantity of materials which had been published in a somewhat confused manner. Possessing those gifts of style which seem indigenous in his countrymen, he has made a very readable book, for which all folk-lorists and ethnologists owe him a debt of gratitude.

The first instalment of his work deals with the two Ugro-Finnish peoples, the Tcheremissians and Mordvins, who inhabit the eastern part of Russia, and are the remains of powerful tribes that once spread over a much greater extent of territory than they at present occupy. They are all undergoing a gradual process of Russification; this change has extended to religion, language, the names of their villages, and their dress. But many pagan customs are to be found among them, and the missionaries (as we so often find them doing) have incorporated what they safely could of the creeds of the natives. There always has been an abundance of strange beliefs among the Finnish races, and we cannot wonder that Lapland in the middle ages had the same reputation as Thessaly among the Greeks, nor that female soothsayers from these regions should have been brought to the bed of the dying Ivan the Terrible to prophesy his fate. Prof. Smirnov is inclined to identify the Tcheremissians with the ancient Finnish Bulgarians, the ruins of whose capital, Bolgari, may still be seen upon the banks of the Volga. The process of Christianizing them has not always been conducted after the mildest fashion, and it is pleasant to learn from Prof. Smirnov that Peter the Great relaxed some of these severities and advocated milder measures (p. 51). Not only has force been used, but bribery, and the disintegration of their nationality has been further assisted by the planting of Russian colonists among them. They are mentioned by Herberstein in his book on Russia, written at the beginning of the sixteenth century; he found them very widely spread. They have the primitive house such as is found among Finnish people, but have borrowed the style of window from the Russians. The custom among the women of decorating themselves with coins Prof. Smirnov thinks borrowed from the neighboring Tatars. They are fond of horse-flesh as a diet, and occupy themselves with fishing and agriculture. Only a few industries have been developed among them. Marriage both by capture and purchase exists. Their conception of the next world is that men lead there over again just the same lives as they did in this. Stones, plants, and trees are also held sacred among them. The dead are duly commemorated by feasts. Their prayers are entirely for material goods, and Prof. Smirnov gives a long specimen of one. They offer sacrifices. The victim must be entire, but only pieces are given to the divinity—the sacrificer and his friends consume the rest. Their creed is very flexible, and from the confused religious ideas they have gained from the Russians, they have made many new gods. Thus, hearing the word *eternal* used so much in Christian prayers, they have made a god of eternity. They have a belief in a great race of giants who preceded them.

The Mordvins, to whom the second part of Mr. Smirnov's book is devoted, are even more widely spread than the Tcheremissians. Philologists trace Gothic, Lithuanian, and Iranian elements in their language. Such Gothic as we get is of a very interesting type, and earlier in its forms than that of Ulpilas. A careful list is given of their names of animals; it is singular that the word for dog is almost the same in all the Finnish languages, but the names of the other animals differ. The Mordvins have no original names for metals. The traces of the Magyars on the left bank of the Volga are shown by the names of many of their settlements. It is here that the cradle of the Hungarian race must be sought. Until the eighteenth century, and when the immense forests which used to cover the present governments of Penza, Nizhni-Novgorod, and Simbirsk had not been cut down, the mode of life among the Mordvins was the same as Herberstein described it to be when he visited their country: "Hi in pagis passim habitant, agros colunt, victum ex ferina carne et melle habent, pellibus abundant preciosis." They seem to be somewhat gross in their diet, and to eat all kinds of animals. Their villages are arranged in a capricious fashion; there is no attempt to form anything like a street, but the houses are clustered together in twos and threes. There is a tendency now to ornament the exterior of their houses, but it is entirely from Russian influence. The women wear very elaborate headdresses, and their garments are carefully embroidered. Mr. Smirnov looks upon many of these ornamentations as entirely Byzantine and as having been handed down by tradition. The names to denote relationship argue a very primitive conception of marriage. Matriarchy, marriage by capture, and child-marriages are common enough. The old men, wherever the Mordvins have not been influenced by Christianity, are put to death as soon as they are unable to be useful. The mode of killing is by beating. The only conception of the family seems to be a group of individuals united by blood.

The customs concerning the dead are equally curious. When a man is dying, a cup of water is placed at the window because the soul, on quitting the body, desires to wash itself. Pieces of money are given to the corpse so that he may have the wherewithal to purchase what he wants in the next world. A horse is then sacrificed if it be a man who has died, and a cow in the case of a woman. The dead begins his life in the next world with the same characteristics which he has in this: for example, if he were a drunkard on earth, he is also a drunkard in the new existence. Ancestor-worship exists among the Mordvins in a highly developed form. If ancestors are neglected they will take vengeance upon the living. The Mordvin has peopled with mystic life all the forms of nature: there are spirits of the water, spirits of the wood, and all others in strict analogy, and these spirits are quite anthropomorphic. They have bodies like human beings and live and die like human beings. Their gods, in fact, are the powers of nature deified. Mr. Smirnov did not succeed, while making his researches among this people, in getting any forms of ritual employed by them.

Our author is fortunate in having such an interpreter as M. Boyer, who has absolutely recast his material, and has had the advantage, while engaged in the work, of Mr. Smirnov's coöperation. The latter not only consented to the adaptation of his book, but has also occasionally furnished fresh notes. The valuable bibliography appended to these researches has necessarily been omitted. The Russian up to this time has unfortunately been so little studied in France (and, we may add, in our own country) that a list of publications on the subject in that language would be valueless. It is a pity, however, that there are no maps.

Tom Benton's Luck. By Herbert Elliott Hamblen. Macmillan Co. 1898.

The Uncalled. By Paul Laurence Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

David Harum: A Story of American Life. By Edward Noyes Westcott. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Hamblen is another instance of a writer who, on the strength of the success of two previous literary ventures, produces a third that reveals most distinctly his narrow limitations. In his other books, in which he had to deal with the narrative of realistic personal adventures, he left little to be desired; but so soon as he invades the field of romance, as on the present occasion, his failure is emphatic and possibly final. As in his first work, which treats of the sea, in 'Tom Benton's Luck' Mr. Hamblen avails, mainly, of that liquid medium for his flow of narrative. About a conventional plot are grouped the stock properties so

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essential to a story like that of which his present essay is a typical specimen. He again puts strongly in evidence his collection of punitive implements—revolvers, capstan-bars, belaying-pins, rope-ends, boots, and fists. These are generously employed to hasten tardy movement, and to emphasize the fact that life is not all "cakes and ale."

The story is the old one of the love of man and woman. It requires for its full development all of the oceans, and portions of New England, Central America, the East Indies, and England. A remarkable sequence of events permits only once in seven years (during which time they are engaged in a bewildering game of hide-and-seek) the hero to enjoy a glimpse of a section of the back of the heroine. Ultimately, through the coincidence of a timely wreck and rescue, they are reunited in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. To this accomplishment is necessary a succession of adventures on land and sea, rescues from imminent death unfortunately not realized, mutinies, submarine earthquakes, and physical tortures more or less intense. The conclusion is conventionally domestic and peaceful, but, in default of a mother-in-law, there is an aunt who promises to be equally effective in the near future.

A peculiar interest attaches to the latest work of Mr. Dunbar because in it he abandons the safe shelter of his specialty as the literary mouthpiece of a race almost inarticulate, and enters the open arena. His advantage, which also restricted, he flings from him, preferring the freedom of a universal choice though it must bring universal comparison, and his lance must touch those of the mightiest. There is much that is vigorous in this story of life in a small Ohio town—one of the last strongholds of a repellent and narrow orthodoxy. One indeed suspects the towns to be few, even in the South and Middle West, where a candidate for the ministry would suffer persecution because of having engaged in an amateur baseball game with his mates. But conventionalities rather than exaggerations are the weakness of the book. Tradition is more than honored in the portrait of the grim maiden who brought up the drunkard's abandoned child to the very threshold of the ministry, where outraged nature rebelled and he fell into the ranks of the uncalled. She had never "felt the soft face of a babe at her breast"; therefore she did not know that five-year-old children sometimes played on the floor; therefore fishing, kite-flying, playing marbles, and swimming were not countenanced in the boy of her adoption.

Where the narrative is unobstructed it moves swiftly, but the reader is now and then landed in a morass of the author's philosophy. This is, for the most part, so commonplace as to be fairly naïve. After the strong introductory chapter, in which scarcely a superfluous stroke blurs the sharpness of the scene, it is disappointing to come upon paragraphs, nay, pages, of reflections like the following: "Love does so much for a man," "There is no loneliness like the loneliness of the unknown man in a crowd." The author's main intention has been, however, towards conciseness, and we gain an impression of earnestness and truth in his presentation of a soul's struggle with cramping conditions.

Something to be distinctly grateful for in these days of problems is a book which ignores them all; whose author has no "views." So admirable has been Mr. Westcott's reticence that one is not even allowed to infer whether he approved the particular "gospel" of politics which David Harum read. Such pure objectivity of treatment is more than a negative merit in a book purposing to portray a type. A preface informs the reader of the circumstances under which 'David Harum' was written; of its posthumous publication. What no preface need declare is, that a lifetime of keen and sympathetic observation preceded the writing of the book. Such fixing of features, such rendering of atmospheres, are not to be compassed by the casual sojourner. Not this side the 'Biglow Papers' can a parallel be found for the humor, the good sense, the strong homely speech of David Harum, banker. It is difficult not to confess to a fondness for the New York State dialect. The speech of a thrifty, energetic, wide-awake people—New Englanders with one drop more of expansiveness — reflects these wholesome qualities. It need never become a forgotten speech while 'David Harum' endures, to whose pages the future philologist may safely turn for enlightenment on such verbal forms as "skeezicks," "nix-cumrouse," and "skinamulinks."

It is as a character sketch rather than a novel that the book makes its claims. Its other figures, beside the full-breathed vigor of David Harum himself, seem men as trees walking. The languid love-story requires a special Providence to help it out. When the scene shifts to steamer decks or Neapolitan villas, one pines for the realities of Homeville, Freeland County. But the chapters are few in which one does not hear the voice of David Harum. His reminiscences, his horse-trading anecdotes, his home-brewed philosophy, have their own charm. Nor does he ever, in his most sustained harangues, "run to emptins," though his own experience declares that while "the's a good many fast quarter hosses, them that c'n keep it up for a full mile is scurse." Realism has bored its thousands, but in 'David Harum' it has joined hands with delight.

The Study of Man. By Alfred C. Haddon, M.A., etc. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

In this volume of the "Science Series" we have a number of papers upon one or another of the many subjects into which the study of anthropology is divided. They are, as a rule, compilations from the best available sources, relating to matters as far apart as craniometry and folk-lore, and our author's object in preparing them was not to teach us anything about anthropology, considered simply as such, but to tell us what it has to say about ourselves—for "we are of more interest to ourselves than any study can be."

Regarded from this point of view, these papers are of unequal merit, for they depend, necessarily, upon the advance made in the study of each one of the different subjects, and the progress along the whole line is by no means the same. Even in those branches that have proved the most attractive, the results have not always been commensurate with the labor expended upon them. Take, for instance, those which relate to the shape and size of the head and nose, or to the color of the hair and eyes (chaps. i-iv), and, as a matter of fact, when considered separately, they help us very little in determining questions of race—the one issue that gives them importance. This fact our author (pp. 13, 54, 77, 83, 94, etc.) recognizes; and, with all due deference, it is believed that the difficulty cannot be overcome, for the reason that the conclusions to which the investigations of these subjects are supposed to lead are based upon the assumption that there is, or was, somewhere an originally pure race, with certain fixed bodily peculiarities, when, so far as we know, there is not and never has been any such thing. Even the Jews, who are, perhaps, as closely inbred as any people of whom we have record, must needs have been a composite race, for there is Biblical evidence as to the existence of the blonde, as well as the dark, type among them from the earliest times. But, while entertaining decided views upon this point, we do not wish to be understood as discrediting altogether this kind of evidence. So far are we from it that we fully admit its value, when taken in connection with other physical characters; and in chap. v., upon the ethnography of the Dordogne district, we have an example of the results that may follow from "a blending of anthropological investigations with the records of history."

Of the remaining papers, it is only necessary to say that they have a more general interest, and appeal to a larger class of readers. They, too, cover a wide field, ranging all the way from monographs on tops, kites, courting, funeral and other games, to an account of the evolution of the cart, and of the use and distribution of the bull-roarer. Upon these and other matters to which he calls attention, our author shows himself to be well informed; and he discourses of them in a manner that is at once entertaining and instructive. It is a pleasure to be able to add that among the investigators from whom he freely draws, are such well-known American scholars as Brinton, Newell, Culin, and Otis T. Mason.

In the Forbidden Land: An Account of a Journey into Tibet, Capture by the Tibetan Lamas and Soldiers, Imprisonment, Torture and Ultimate Release brought about by Dr. Wilson and the Political Peshkar Karak Sing-Pal. By A. Henry Savage Landor. With the Government enquiry and report and other official documents by J. Larkin, Esq., deputed by the Government of India. Illustrations and map. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1898. 8vo.

It is difficult to feel much interest in Mr. Landor's sensational account of his travels. The journey was not an important one, except to Mr. Landor himself. He crossed the Himalayas into Tibet near the fountain-head of the Indus and Brahmaputra Rivers, and followed down the valley of the latter stream for some two hundred miles. Five weeks and three days after entering the country, he was arrested by the Tibetans and taken back to the frontier. The "geographical results" which he enumerates of this journey, lasting less than two months and through a comparatively well-known region, are necessarily meagre. He claims to have established the fact that there is no connection between the lakes Rakas-tal and Manasarowar, not by the actual crossing of the dividing ridge, but by observations from a distance. Gen. Sir Richard Strachey, on the other hand, in a recent communication to *Nature*, says that he has been at the point

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at which the connecting stream leaves the latter lake, "and there is no more doubt about the fact than that the Thames runs past Richmond." Mr. Landor's other scientific achievement was that he was the first European to reach the sources of the Brahmaputra; the ascent of 22,000 feet and the travelling with only two men "for so long in the most populated part of Tibet," which he includes in his summary of geographical results, being evidences merely of great pluck and endurance. The narrative of this brief journey, which included some short excursions in Indian territory, is swelled with the aid of numerous illustrations into two large and heavy volumes divided into one hundred chapters. In the second volume these average four pages each; one, the 91st, consisting of 57 lines.

Nor do the author's sufferings at the hands of the Tibetans excite our sympathy to any great degree. The very title of his book shows that he was in Tibet contrary to the wishes of the people. Again and again he was warned by the frontier guards that their lives would be the forfeit if they should permit him to pass. Under similar circumstances the year before, another English traveller, Capt. Wellby, turned back. But no such fine consideration for men simply doing their duty deterred Mr. Landor from persisting in his vain attempt to reach Lhasa. It is not strange, certainly, that they ill-treated him when he fell into their hands. Though we do not question the substantial truth of his relation, yet it is difficult not to believe that he gives an exaggerated account of some of his exploits and sufferings. He says, for instance, that he climbed to the almost unrivalled altitude of 22,000 feet, carrying a weight of sixty pounds. He reached this height at 11 P. M., succumbed to the biting wind, lay semi-conscious long enough to be covered with snow, aroused himself and his native companion, and got back to camp, *about 6,000 feet below*, "during the early hours of the morning," when he took food for the first time in twenty-three hours. The accuracy of Mr. Landor's estimated heights is not past question, that of the Mariam-la Pass, for example, being given by him as 17,500 feet, while on the large map of Tibet published by the Royal Geographical Society in 1894 it is only 15,500 feet.

A considerable part of the second volume is devoted to a description of the tortures inflicted on our traveller and his two servants by the Tibetans. Among other things, he was compelled to ride "for miles" with his hands bound behind him on a saddle from whose "crupper four or five sharp iron spikes were sticking out. These caught me on the small of my back." Near the end of the ride a cord was attached to his handcuffs, the other end being held by a horseman who "did his utmost to pull me out of the saddle," but unsuccessfully, he himself being unhorsed by the breaking of the cord. Lest the reader may entertain some doubts, Mr. Landor gives a picture of the "coat I wore . . . showing effects of spikes." One of his servants, after receiving two hundred lashes, he found "had remained tied upright to a post for over three days, and for four days he had not eaten food nor drunk anything." A picture of this man's legs, "showing marks of lashes," is given, while from another page a pair of leprous feet are thrust, as it were, to exhibit the injuries received by his other unfortunate follower. More interesting than these, however, are the evidences of the traveller's own ill-treatment in four contrasted photographs taken in February and October, 1897.

Mr. Landor is careful to keep before the reader the fact that his journey had a purely "scientific object," and we frequently find such statements as, "We proceeded along the right bank of the main stream to 23° 30″, then to 25°," or, "following a marked track to 125° (b. m.), we continued our descent, etc." His zeal for science was such that, though bound during his return journey, "I used," he says, "to draw my right hand out of its cuff, and, with a small piece of bone I had picked up as pen, and my blood as ink, I drew brief cipher notes, and a map of the whole route back." He gives considerable information about the lamas or monks, some of which he obtained in conversation with them, though it is surprising at least that in two months he was able to acquire the language sufficiently to converse in "colloquial Tibetan," at times apparently without the aid of an interpreter. There is nothing novel in this information, with the exception of the account of the repulsive cannibalism practised upon their dead, which, so far as our knowledge goes, has never been charged against this people by any other writer or traveller, and needs further confirmation before it can be credited. Some chapters are devoted to an interesting account of a visit to the haunts of the Raots or "wild men of the forest," and to a description of the customs of the Shokas, an Indian frontier tribe. In an appendix are printed some official documents, including affidavits mainly relating to Mr. Landor's treatment by the Tibetans. The illustrations are numerous and give to the volumes a very attractive appearance. The author, trust him or not, as we may, shows considerable descriptive power.

The Rivers of North America: A Reading Lesson for Students of Geography and Geology. By Israel C. Russell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

According to the old conception of a river, as taught in the geographies of fifteen years ago, its most important parts are the source, the States through which it flows, and the body into which it empties; with some description of the principal towns or cities along its course. The idea of a river system having its natural history, and being part of an organized process tending to modify the surface of a continent, is one that has been developed by the new school of American geographers, and goes hand in hand with the "nature study" now so prevalent in the secondary schools. So important has become this study of earth process in this country that the American geographer is apt to overlook the commercial and human interests of geography in the fascinating contemplation of geographical evolution.

Following the publication of his attractive volumes on the lakes, glaciers, and volcanoes of North America, Prof. Russell now offers to the American public a treatise on the rivers of this continent. His thesis, and that of the American school of geography in general, is stated concisely on the third page of his prefatory remarks "to the reader":

"It is not the shape of the earth as it exists to-day, the present distribution of land and water on its surface, or the relief of the land or of the floor of the sea, but the changes that each of these conditions has passed through in order to reach its present state, and the modifications still in progress, which claim the greatest share of the geographer's attention."

The word "American" should have been inserted before "geographer" in this sentence; compare the words of a distinguished Scotch geologist, the author of the companion volume on 'Earth Sculpture' in the same Science Series:

"The special treatment of geographical evolution does not come within the limits of my essay. This interesting subject has of late years been studied with much assiduity, especially by Prof. W. M. Davis and others in North America."

It is clear that the interest of the British school, while still geographers, is distinctly "the shape of the earth as it exists to-day."

Prof. Russell's book might better be called a study of the physiography of rivers, with illustrations from North America. Eight chapters are devoted to a systematic statement of the laws governing the disintegration and decay of rocks, the material carried by streams, the methods of stream development and conquest, and the classification of stream deposits, illustrated rather briefly by American types, while only one chapter is given to "some of the characteristics of American rivers." This chapter, it should be mentioned, is an instructive one and extremely comprehensive. The author's plan of treating the subject in the order of dynamic process and products of deposition is a good one in view of the fact that the subject is new with respect to coördinated text-book treatment. A path-breaking work of this sort must be treated more leniently than one dealing with a subject that has long stood the test of systematic classification. It is to be hoped, however, that when the science of river erosion has attained still more advanced definition than at present, such words as "hardness," applied to rocks in the sense of resistance to erosion, may be eliminated. This resistance is affected by jointing, amount of chemical decomposition, texture, coarseness, and structure, as well as by hardness in the sense of resistance to corrasion.

The description of process occupies so large a part of the volume that the subject-matter, as indicated on the title-page, is frequently sacrificed for lack of space, and single topics are so divided up that in some cases the meaning is not clear. Take, for example, Niagara. Under the heading of "Waterfalls resulting from inherited topographic conditions," the statement is made that "Niagara, when it first leaped from the summit of the escarpment near the present site of Lewiston, was higher than at any subsequent period of its history"; and again: "Niagara Falls came into existence when a large lake, which formerly flooded the Ontario and Erie basins, was lowered so as to be divided into two water-bodies by a ridge, trending east and west, formed by the summit of the Lewiston escarpment." These two isolated statements, occurring on pages 59 and 62, will certainly arouse the reader's interest; but no explanation is offered until we reach page 298, under the heading of "Special characteristics of Niagara." In the same way the Susquehanna is mentioned on pages 194, 204, 261, and yet has no place whatever in the index. The incomplete quality of the index is unfortunate in view of the unsystematic treatment of the title subject.

The typography of the volume is on the whole good. Table A, supposed to face page 78, seems to have been entirely omitted; and

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we notice under Plate ix. that the initials are inaccurate. The illustrations, drawn largely from photographs and reproduced by the half-tone process, are many of them excellent; but the reproduction of contour maps by this process is to be deplored. Thus, Plate x., reproducing Willis's beautiful map of the Susquehanna where it crosses the plunging anticlines of the anthracite basin, is so much reduced and blurred by this process that the river itself is quite inconspicuous and the lettering practically obliterated. In strong contrast with this, and very satisfactory, are the maps illustrating the development of an anticlinal valley in Plate xi., here reproduced from line drawings, with streams in a different color.

The volume, in fine, is a useful work, and cannot fail to take rank as a most important contribution to American geographical literature. The subject with which it deals has occupied American geographers for the last quarter of a century, and no one, up to this time, has produced a text-book on the evolution of river systems, though many students have been in need of one. Prof. Russell's book will fill this need, while it is at the same time attractive to the general reader, being written in popular style. The last chapter, on the "life history of a river," reads like a romance, and expresses admirably the orderly character of erosive action and the interest which the study of land-form has for students who learn to recognize stages of growth.

American Bookmen. By M. A. De Wolfe Howe. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. Small 8vo, 295 pages.

This work is essentially a gift-book, and such publications, from the days of Annuals down, have owed their popularity to pictures. But there has been a distinction even here, since in some cases the pictures illustrated the text, while in others the text merely filled the space between the pictures. Of the first sort was 'Homes of American Authors,' published by Putnam five and forty years ago, and never surpassed, in a work of this sort, for typographical and artistic beauty. This was the book to which the late G. W. Curtis contributed his admirable descriptions of the Concord circle, full of the enthusiasm of youth, flavored with piquant but stingless humor. There have since been several other books on the same plan, but inferior in execution, and one wonders that holiday bookbuyers should take this perennial interest in the outward circumstances of persons they otherwise care little about.

In Mr. Howe's volume the illustrations are interesting, though rarely possessing any artistic merit, and the text is respectable. There is nothing at first hand, like Curtis's sketches, and our author shows no sign of future eminence in respect to his manner of writing, of which the only merit is its apparent ease. Nor does he exhibit that quality which secures pardon even for commonplace prose or personal eccentricity: the faculty, namely, of presenting a hackneyed subject in a new light. Mr. Howe is too conscientious to be fulsome in his praise, and too sensible to be acrid in his condemnation, as regards either the life or the works of his subjects. But to justify a book one must have other than negative qualities—either something new in fact or opinion, or else some special felicity of style.

There is one peculiarity about this volume, as compared with Mr. Brander Matthews's and others: the author nowhere indicates that he has read any of the works of the writers he describes. The criticism, like the facts and anecdotes, is such as might readily be compiled from easily accessible books. We have no fault to find with it, except for the absence of that freshness of phrase which shows that a writer has himself thought out the views he expresses. As to facts, he here and there betrays a sort of indolence which is not to his credit. If he never read the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' he could, without excessive effort, have found Holmes's famous quotation about the centre of the solar system in Bartlett, and by his aid have quoted it correctly (page 276). If he had examined 'Irvingiana,' in which the unabridged version of the anecdote is given by Duyckinck, he would not have said that Washington was President when he put his hand on the head of his little namesake. And if he had looked at so common a book as Wilson's 'Bryant,' he would have given a more correct version of the story about the publication of "Thanatopsis." Mr. Howe takes his version from Mr. Godwin's book, where the source is given as a conversation between R. H. Dana and Mr. R. C. Watterson. Whether the fault was due to Dana's failing memory (the date being presumably near the close of his life), or his reporter's inaccuracy, the fact remains that this account differs materially from that written by Dana at a comparatively early date (1846). A false color, again, is sometimes given to incidents, as in the statement that "Murray was only too glad to take the 'Sketch-Book' into his own hands" (page 16); the fact being, as Bryant has shown, that "Murray allowed himself to be persuaded by Scott" into publishing it. And one does not need to be a linguist to see the absurdity of such a combination (page 21) as "Stadthouse of New Amsterdam." If Mr. Howe objected to the plain English of "town hall," why resort to such a hybrid German- (not Dutch) English wording as this? Or, if he thought that a Dutch phrase would give picturesqueness to his page, why did he not write "stadhuis"?

Nelson and his Times. By Lord Charles Beresford and H. W. Wilson. E. & J. B. Young & Co.

This work, in the words of the preface by Lord Charles Beresford, is addressed to the millions of the great British democracy, and is not intended to compete with Capt. Mahan's great work upon the same subject. It is, in truth, far from exhaustive, but it succeeds in presenting an attractive and profusely illustrated life of the British hero and, to a very much less degree, a picture of his times. We remark that the dramatic description of the execution of Admiral Byng, with which the book opens, though of interest, is not pertinent to Nelson or to the times in which he lived, as the event occurred before his birth.

It has been said by Englishmen that their naval commanders may be divided into two classes: in the one is Nelson; in the other are all the rest. Whether this be true or not, it is fully the opinion of his countrymen to the present day. Nelson's birthday and the anniversary of the battle of Trafalgar seem to grow in observance as time goes on, and strained relations with France only intensify the devotion to and ostentatious observance of the memory of the man who contributed so powerfully to the peace which has existed between these rival and neighboring countries for a period of nearly eighty years. It is only of late years that Nelson's genius for war, displayed both as a tactician and as a strategist, has been appreciated. His early promotions were undoubtedly hastened by his connection with the Walpoles and the influence of his uncle, Capt. Suckling. Without that he must have been handicapped by his physique. Sickly and undersized for his age, Nelson appeared to his contemporaries to be the least fitted of his family for the life of a sailor, but his indomitable will and courage carried him through all the trials and hardships of the sea and of war, though had he lived in the present day, as our author well says, he would almost certainly have been rejected in his physical examination for entrance. Rank and file, the navy in Nelson's day was a hard school; the officers were rough and illiterate and the men the product of the press-gang. Of this material Nelson made the most possible, not so much from fear as from attachment. The times were not altogether unlike those spoken of by Dr. Johnson when he said that no man with contrivance enough to get himself in jail would be a sailor. Desertions were so frequent that 42,000 men were logged as deserters from the navy in the first ten years of the great war with France.

Nelson's care of men throughout his career was wonderful, and explained their affection for him. No detail as to their food or clothing escaped his notice; the length of their jerseys, the dropping of a bag of biscuit overboard, the quality of their duck trousers, and the overcharges of the storekeeper occupied the mind of this tactician and strategist. He abhorred the idea of able-bodied men dying from sickness or mismanagement. At his death it was a question with many, notwithstanding the brilliant and direct results of his victory, whether the cost of it was not too dear. Lord Minto, shortly before Nelson's departure on his last cruise, said of him that it was affecting to see the wonder, admiration, and love with which he was greeted by all classes when he was seen.

To all classes in England this volume is equally addressed, and at the present moment it is likely to revive the feelings of the past for the hero who, in his career and in the field of his career, was peculiarly and surpassingly England's own.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. 1899. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Bragdon, C. F. The Golden Person in the Heart. Gouverneur, N. Y.: Brothers of the Book.
Colman, C. S., and Windsor, A. H. The Sportsman's Year-Book. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Davis, Prof. W. M., and Snyder, W. H. Physical Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Forman, S. E. First Lessons in Civics. American Book Co. 60c.
Gallet, Louis. The Adventures of Cyrano de Bergerac. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Hyatt, P. F. and J. T. Cuba: Its Resources and Opportunities. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.50.
Keller, Prof. I. Second Year in German. American Book Co. $1.20.
Lodge, G. C. The Song of the Wave, and Other Poems. Scribners. $1.50.
Mowry, W. A. and A. M. First Steps in the History of Our Country. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60c.
Peabody, Josephine P. The Wayfarers. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Sarcey, Francisque. Le Siège de Paris. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Sprague, F. H. Spiritual Consciousness. Wollaston, Mass.: F. H. Sprague. $1.50.
Takenobu, Y. Classical Tales of Old Japan. Tokyo: Japan Times Office.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. J. K. New Yorkers of the XIX. Century. F. T. Neely.
War Poems. 1898. San Francisco: Murdock Press.

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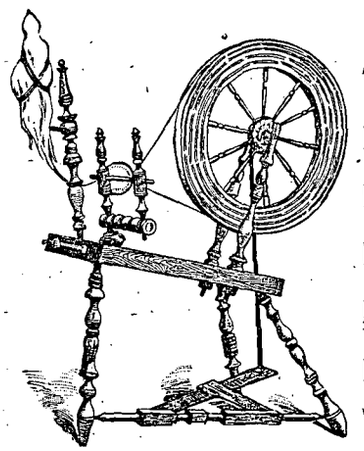

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